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ABSTRACT

This book describes a way to develop effective spellers--boys and girls who have a system for writing words accurately in their school compositions and in personal messages. Teachers know that to develop effective spellers, they must attend to helpful rules and to regular practice. Most research on effective spelling can be reduced to these two techniques: knowing the patterns of English spelling and writing regularly. Young writers need to know there is a system in English-language spelling that enables them to devise generalizations for solving spelling problems. By paying attention to the sound-spelling system and by developing related memory techniques, students establish the habits needed to spell accurately. This book puts spelling in perspective, teaches the important spelling patterns, shows children how to self-correct their writing, and demonstrates the regularity of English spelling. Based on a study of more than 16,000 student compositions, the book gives spelling instruction a practical focus that makes teaching and learning easier and improves performance. It is designed to help teachers motivate children, understand how children learn to spell, develop a teaching strategy for spelling, and know which areas to concentrate on. Appended are criteria for evaluating a spelling program, and words for a spelling program. Contains approximately 100 references. (NKA)

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Spelling for Writing:

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Spelling for Writing: Instructional Strategies

by Carl B. Smith, Howard Peet, and James Coomber

The Family Learning Association

&

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PREFACE

DO YOU CONSIDER YOURSELF AN ACCURATE SPELLER? If you do, it may be that former teachers worked on spelling with some regularity. If you do not, perhaps your teachers neglected spelling. Of course, there may be other reasons, but over the past twenty years educators have not paid much attention to spelling and other so-called mechanical aspects of writing. Instead, we emphasized creative or personal writing.

After rising complaints from teachers, parents, and business people, we are asking anew what constitutes effective communication, especially the exchange of ideas through writing. Ideas and language are essential to clear written communication, and so are the related skills of forming intelligible sentences and recognizable words. We affirm again that accurate spelling and punctuation are integrally linked to clear written communication, and they need to be learned, need to be taught.

Spelling is, of course, only one ingredient in a clearly written message. It contributes to an easy and effective exchange of ideas between the writer and the reader. In this book, spelling is not presented as an isolated skill for the sake of spelling bees. It is discussed as a writer or a teacher of writing would look at it.

Effective Spellers

This short book describes a way to develop effective spellers—boys and girls who have a *system* for writing words accurately in their school compositions and in personal messages.

Teachers know that to develop effective spellers, they must attend to helpful rules and to regular practice. Most research on effective spelling can be reduced to these two techniques—*knowing the patterns of English spelling* and *writing regularly*. Young writers need to know there is a system in English-language spelling that enables them to devise generalizations for solving spelling problems. By paying attention to the sound-spelling system and by developing related memory techniques, students establish the habits needed to spell accurately. Across the school years, the more often children see a word and reconstruct it in writing, the more likely they are to remember it.

The chapters in this book are designed to help teachers motivate children, understand how children learn to spell, develop a teaching strategy for spelling, and know which areas to concentrate on.

The writing of children probably gives us our best insight into the words they want to use and the kinds of difficulties they experience. A national study indicates that spelling, handwriting, word knowledge, sentence sense, and self-editing are closely linked to effective written communication. In fact, among those elements, spelling always has an intriguing and interesting role.

—Carl B. Smith

CHAPTER ONE

Why Learn to Spell?

OVER THE PAST COUPLE OF DECADES, ATTENTION TO spelling, grammar, syntax, and handwriting seemed to disappear while educators emphasized creativity. Besides, the very idea of spelling sounds like drudgery; it is no wonder that learning to spell was assigned to a DNA wonderland—"some people have it and some don't."

In the local community, however, spelling assumes a different perspective. Parents and employers see accurate spelling as one mark of the educated person. Listen to informal chatter at parent-teacher meetings. Parents are definitely

disturbed when their children bring home papers filled with spelling errors. And watch the tongues wag if a teacher sends home a message with a spelling error in it. Then we hear complaints about a "teacher who presents a negative model" and "schools going down the tubes."

Although no one spells perfectly all the time, our increasingly educated public expects—and rightly so—that formal communications be mostly error-free. The effort to accomplish coherent, correctly spelled, and correctly punctuated messages is a matter of etiquette and, for teachers, should be a matter of personal pride.

Sometimes it helps us become conscious of spelling if we take a spelling test. Can you recognize words that are incorrectly spelled? Here, for example, is a short list of words I have selected from one page of a book that I have beside me as I write. Put an X in front of those words that you think are not correct; then spell them correctly.

____ 1. frigat (ship) _____

____ 2. desert (sand) _____

____ 3. mispell _____

____ 4. negligent _____

____ 5. contemporanous _____

____ 6. individualized _____

____ 7. ansillary _____

____ 8. kaleidoscope _____

____ 9. communicate _____

We might excuse errors in some of these words because they are not used very often, but most of us feel chagrined when we find frequently used words misspelled in public documents such as newspapers or business letters. (Did you place an X in front of *frigate*, *misspell*, *contemporaneous*, and *ancillary*?)

Social Pressures

One school personnel director said that his district reviewed each prospective teacher's letter of application to see if the candidate could write and spell. He showed me this example:

Dear Mr. Paul,
I am very inthused about working for your school I visited their last summer. I am pleased that you repay lones.

Yours truely,
MF

April 12, 2000
oh by the way you can find me at 302 Oakridge Sunshine USA

As you might guess, that person did not get a teaching job.

Industrial firms are also asking people to write letters and personal statements. One plant manager told me that his organization did not want to employ careless people. Spelling accuracy was one way he screened potential employees for carelessness.

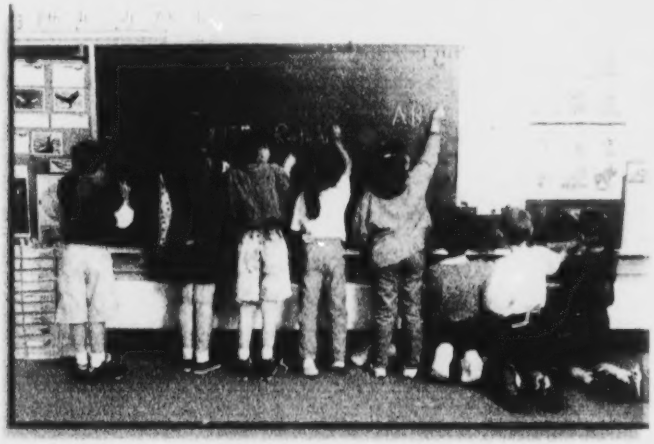
These two anecdotes reflect what appears to be a growing community concern for competence in basic skills. Competence pays off in state or local academic tests and also in the offices of employers. Where, then, does this place the school language-arts curriculum? What must we do to improve performance in spelling? Which words should be learned? Are there some methods and techniques that are more effective than others? Indeed, what are the objectives of teaching spelling?

Spelling-Bee Mentality

One of the reasons spelling fell out of favor with language-arts specialists is that they thought spelling was isolated to mechanical drills over artificial lists of words, perhaps for participating in a spelling bee. In the past, words were listed in isolation, memorized in isolation, spelled aloud (or tested on paper) in isolation, and children didn't seem to transfer that kind of learning to the actual writing tasks, such as writing to Grandma or to Uncle Jack.

Many children had a similar reaction to the spelling-bee mentality. Unless they liked the sense of competition, they spent most of the hour devoted to the weekly spelldown in fruitless boredom. That doesn't mean that an occasional spelling bee can't add a little zing to the class routine, but we should not equate a spelling bee with the purpose for spelling in the language arts curriculum. Spelling accurately should make it more comfortable for students to write and easier for their readers to recognize the message. In the context of writing messages (letters, assignments, etc.), learning to spell becomes worthwhile, has meaning, and may even become an interesting sport.

Let's look at two student compositions. The first was written by a sixth-grade girl, an excellent reader. It is typed here with the spelling and punctuation that she used. Her paper and handwriting were too messy to provide an easily read reproduction.



Grade 6 - Female

Thin the man to the sack out of the logs mout and opened et and these was gold and silver en it then he went to the kind and said i will give you leven gold pieces to see your dauter the kind said no! so the men went home and asked the dog for a bweteful lady so the dog left for a minite and cane back with a bwetiful lady the lady was very rich so he marred her and soon the lady deid so he took the maney and then he went to bar and and played porker and the lost so he had know more money so he starved toll he deid.

Many things could be said about student writing by analyzing that girl's composition. For example, she used only two punctuation marks—an exclamation mark and a final period. She was both consistent and inconsistent in her misspellings. Some of her errors are clearly the result of carelessness, for instance where she wrote *logs* for *dogs* in her first utterance. Her teacher rated her an excellent reader, but she is not even adequate in her writing skills.

Composition respelled - Grade 6 - Female

Then the man took the sack out of the dog's mouth and opened it and there was gold and silver in it. Then he went to the king and said, "I will give you eleven gold pieces to see your daughter." The king said, "no!" So the man went home and asked the dog for a beautiful lady so the dog left for a minute and came back with a beautiful lady. The lady was very rich so he married her, and soon the lady died so he took the money. And then he went to (a) bar and played poker—and he lost. So he had no more money so he starved until he died.

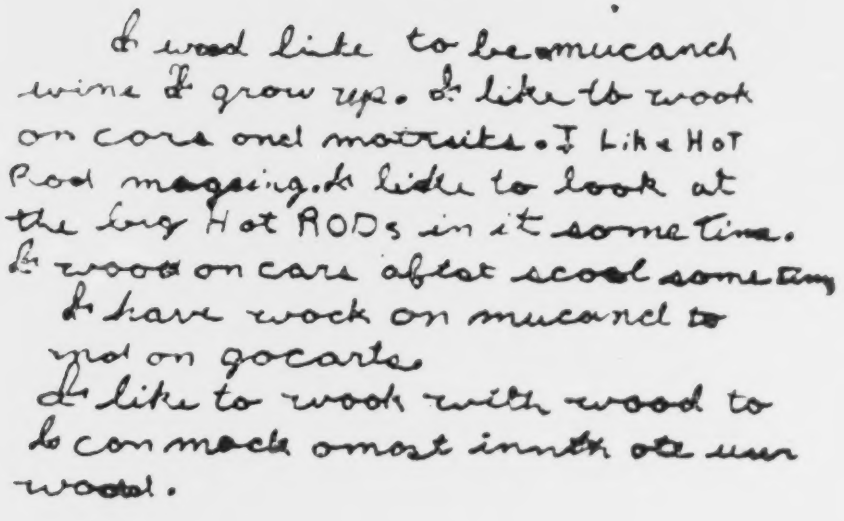
More to the point, we showed this sixth-grade composition in its typewritten form—just as you first saw it—to several sixth-grade classes. Some of the students (about 20%) took the passage as a challenge and worked through it to decide what the writer was saying. They viewed it as solving a puzzle. The rest of the students (about 80%) resisted answering questions about it, saying it was too much of a mess to work on. Our point exactly.

All of the 63 sixth-graders who viewed this passage guessed that it had been written by a first- or second-grader who was performing very poorly in school. Therein lies the most powerful reason that I know for learning to spell accurately: the girl's age-mates rejected her paper 4-to-1 and then judged it the work of an inferior little kid—a devastating rejection for any sixth-grader. And the verdict would have been even more severe had the original handwritten copy been used. It took extreme effort to decipher.

The girl's story about the magic dog was an assignment; it was not meant to be shared with the class. Nonetheless, it was submitted as a formal communication representing the writer. If the teacher accepts that paper without direction or comment, all of the incumbent error-ridden behaviors are left intact. If the teacher simply marks each of the errors with a red pen, the child may count the number of errors (though she probably won't) but doesn't know what to do about them. If the teacher sets up an individual conference and spelling lesson, she loses the time she needs for the other 25 children in the class.

Thus we see that this child's writing performance is not acceptable to her peers, to her teacher, or to a personnel director. Although it is only one graphic example, our sample illustrates the dilemma teachers and schools face in teaching spelling, i.e., how to train children in basic skills without stifling their creative thoughts.

Let's consider another example. This one comes from the pen of an eighth-grade boy, one year behind his age-mates. We are reproducing it here as he wrote it because his original was clear enough for our purposes. What is your reaction to it?


I wood like to be a mucanch
wine I grow up. I like to wook
on cors and motorsits. I Like Hot
Rod magazing. I like to look at
the big Hot RODs in it sometime.
I wood on cars after scool sometim
I have wock on mucanel to
rod on gocarts
I like to wook with wood to
do can mack almost inmth ote wer
wood.

With a bit of effort, you may have figured out his message.

I have frequently used an overhead-projection transparency of this composition when speaking to parents or teachers of junior high school students. Their first reaction—no matter the group—is extremely negative. They reject it because the handwriting, spelling, and other mechanical features are too awkward to deal with. "Who wants to work that hard?" they ask.

Many teachers act differently. They accept the challenge of deciphering and proceed enthusiastically to call out each word as they determine what it is. "That's the way some of my kids write, too," they remark, "that is, if they can do that well." Most groups, including teachers, reject a written message when it is weak, confusing, or hard to work with for any reason.

But examine what that eighth-grade boy wrote:

I would like to be a mechanic when I grow up. I like to work on cars and motorcycles. I like *HOT ROD* magazine. I like to look at the big hot rods in it sometimes. I work on cars after school sometimes. I have worked on mechanical toys and on go-carts. I like to work with wood, too. I can make almost anything out of wood.

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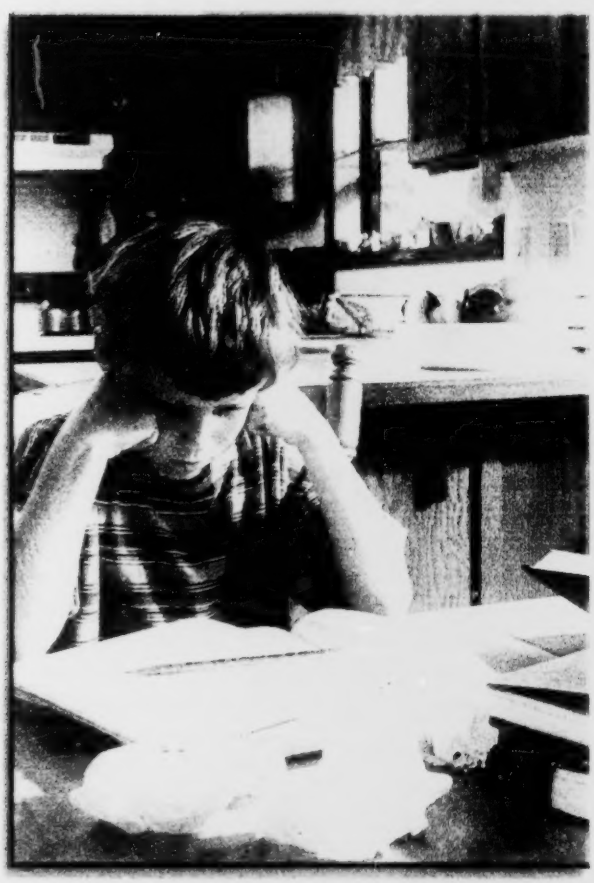
He has made a substantive statement about himself and his future career with evidence that supports his choice and his own continuing interest and behavior. Almost 90% of my audiences said they would not take the trouble to figure out the message unless they had to do so as a teacher.

Teachers make judgments about writing in ways very similar to the rest of our society. Even when they are scoring essay examinations presumably on the substantive issues alone, they give lower grades to students whose papers have noticeable errors in spelling and punctuation. That tendency, by the way, persists across all levels of education.

Educators don't usually proclaim that accurate spelling is as valuable as, or more valuable than, substantive ideas. It's just that spelling is one of the tools of the educated writer and our society expects to see a reasonable facsimile of it in student papers. No one says that knowing how to dribble a ball is equivalent to playing the game of basketball, but a player who can't dribble reasonably well will be judged inadequate and won't be chosen for the good teams. So too with spelling and writing. Spelling is not the same as the game of writing, but you can't get on the writing team if you can't spell reasonably well.



Spelling in School

For motivational purposes, it is helpful to know that it pays off socially, academically, and vocationally to learn to spell. Those factors may be reasons for incorporating spelling into the school curriculum, but they do not of themselves determine what the content of the curriculum should be or how to teach different students. Other chapters in this book wrestle with how children learn to spell and they offer strategies for teaching spelling across the elementary grades.

There is a powerful logic in trying to match the spelling curriculum with the writing vocabulary of children at each grade. With computers we can sort out the words that children tend to use in their writing in each of their school years. We do not have to rely on vocabulary studies based on adult writing samples gathered forty to sixty years ago to see which words today's children need and to decide which ones give them the most trouble. Their own current writing in grades one through eight reveals their vocabulary needs, spelling problems, and editing functions that can guide a spelling curriculum. Spelling, after all, is for writing.

Children are fascinated with words—their sound, their meaning, yes, even their spelling. When they see the relation between communication and spelling, they will play spelling games, seek out their own corrections, make up their own mnemonics (memory rules), and spend the effort it takes to become a reasonably accurate speller.

CHAPTER TWO

How Children Learn to Spell

ACROSS THE YEARS TEACHERS HAVE EMPLOYED VARIOUS approaches and achieved varying degrees of success. Noah Webster's *Blue-Backed Speller,* beginning in 1783, taught young Americans to pronounce and spell words they might later encounter in reading. Syllabication and stressed syllables were emphasized, as examples from two lists show:

a•cre	an•i•mal
a•pron	an•nu•al
bare•foot	cru•ci•fix
ca•ble	cru•el•ty
dai•ly	de•fi•ance

McGuffey's Alternate Spelling Book, a hundred years later, grouped words differently, but still as a preparation for reading. Pronunciation led to grouping words like *boy* and *oil*; topics led to groupings such as *eyes, jaws, spleen,* and *stomach;* and word endings and spelling rules also served as the basis for grouping words such as *pacer, planter,* and *furrier,* and *holy, holier,* and *holiest.*

Twentieth-century researchers in the United States have given large amounts of time to spelling—the process, the desired vocabulary, and the methodology. Spelling programs have been based both on frequency in use of words and on sound-letter patterns. Many schools have taught the subject informally, using teacher-made lists. In the Sixties and early Seventies, spelling as a school subject went into a decline, probably because of a general lack of emphasis on writing during those decades. Educators were also concerned that emphasis on spelling might stifle the students' creativity.

During the Eighties, teachers showed interest in and serious concern about writing, even suggesting that writing may rival reading in importance. But this trend towards increased writing did not bring with it an emphasis on basic skills, such as spelling. Educators adopted an instructional philosophy that encouraged creativity and freedom of constraints. Concern for spelling was not on that agenda.

In the Nineties, however, both researchers and practitioners have come to recognize that spelling competence may actually free students to write. Parents, educators, and students care about how compositions look and how easily they can be read. Accurate spelling fits into this new view, as does making it interesting and rewarding to learn.

Questions Teachers Ask

As clear writing becomes a major concern, spelling rises in importance and is a frequent topic of discussion in workshops. Teachers ask:

- What are the objectives of a spelling program?
- How do children learn to spell?
- What words should students learn to spell?
- How should spelling words be grouped and distributed?
- What strategies help students learn? How do we provide for individual differences?
- What are a teacher's responsibilities?
- How does a teacher evaluate spelling?

The Objectives of a Spelling Program

The overall objective of teaching spelling is, of course, to enable students to write effectively and to communicate with others clearly and accurately. The characteristics of good spellers have been identified:

- a strong sense of language,
- a system of internalized spelling rules,
- an excellent visual memory,
- good spellers are aware of words that follow the rules and memorize words that violate them (Nicholson and Schacter, 1979).

General goals for a spelling program are maintenance and growth; that is, retention of what has been learned together with an extension of vocabulary and spelling competence (Fitzsimmons and Loomer, 1978). Specific objectives for students are:

1. mastery of frequently used words,
2. ability to use sound-letter patterns for spelling unfamiliar words,
3. use of visual memory, including the use of mnemonic devices,
4. developing the habit of systematic self-correction and proofreading (Smith and Ingersoll, 1982).

These objectives are based on the way children learn to spell.

Children are learning about written languages from their earliest awareness of print. When they see their parents read or listen to a storybook, they gain impressions that prompt their own attempts at writing. Their scrawling and drawing on paper (sometimes on walls) indicate their sense that ideas can be put on paper. Those first imitations of writing and illustrating are valuable experiences, and certainly parents and nursery-school teachers should encourage this kind of expression.

In this chapter, however, we focus on conventional writing, which uses particular letters of the alphabet to spell words, and therefore on conventional spelling. In order to teach spelling, it is helpful to examine how children learn to spell in school.

From the 1950s on, research has revealed that spelling is a complex development, not a rote-memory task as it was once considered to be. Spelling is based on auditory, visual, and kinesthetic perceptions. As adults, we use these perceptions unconsciously. We read and hear words, spell and write them, review our writing to see that words "look right," and correct our misspellings. Those are the perceptions that we want to communicate to children.

As children use the alphabet and begin to write, auditory perception, sometimes called phonemic awareness, is most important. They begin to distinguish the speech sounds that mark the differences from one word to another, e.g., *bat* from *hat.* As they begin to read, children utilize visual perception, discrimination, and memory. Their initial step toward spelling may be recognition of words in a storybook, and they see that *house* and *horse* have internal differences. They also become aware that their own dictated "stories" may be transformed into recognizable symbols.

Three stages in early spelling development are:

I. **Young children use visual memory of the alphabet and minimal sound-letter correspondence to write words.**

II. **A second stage includes the use of sounds of letter names for vowels —"Time fll do" for *Timmy fell down* is a first-grade example of both stages.**

III. **In the third stage, the young learner remembers some high-frequency words and has some automatic visual recognition and shows a concern for accuracy.**

The following composition by a first-grade student provides an example of stage three. Most of the words are correctly spelled; and the misspellings are logical.

> Meredith is my best frend. She hits me a lot but that's ok. We still get along. Sometimes we play baseball soker and football. Sometimes we swim in her blue sement swimming pool.

Early on, children realize that a single sound may have more than one spelling. They recognize that there are sound-letter patterns and use them in writing, indicating an early desire to make the language "manageable." Their misspellings, too, indicate use of patterns and are consistently incorrect — "biek" and "gaet" for *bike* and *gate,* for example.

Children follow a pattern in learning to spell, characterized by three stages. Their earliest attempts seem to be rough guesses at the desired word, usually making use of some identifiable consonant or cluster of letters, such as "mk" for *milk* or "mth" for *mother*. In the second stage, they use a limited personal phonics system to approximate the words they want to spell. Thus "lik" stands for *like*, "sistr"

for *sister*, "babe" for *baby*, and so on. The letter below is an example of this stage. It was written by a seven-year-old second-grader to her five-year-old sister.

Dear Marla

I am rittin this to ask you a qustin why don't you ever trust me it seems that you do not trust me at all so you make me feel bad and you hurt my feeling to. I donat meem to hurt yours. Thoe I do get mad somtimes it is lik I want to help you with something you say no and that is how you hurt me. And sometimes I think your trying to be nice and I thint that is very nice of you. But other time you ether donat trust me or you donat want me around or your mad or tierd. And sometimes I think tho whole family thinks I'm a creepo.

from Regina.

This letter has a combination of correctly spelled words and a personal phonics system—not an unusual combination for children in the primary grades. The writer has learned that she can express her feelings in writing through these means. At her age, her teachers and her age-mates accept those phonetic approximations because they are generally comprehensible. Someone is bound to point out to her, however, that some of those words could be spelled differently.

The third stage in the development of a speller is a concern for accuracy—not 100% accuracy, because that is seldom achieved, but a concern that the message is spelled accurately with very few mistakes. In other words, the child has enough experience with writing and reading to know the spelling of many frequently used words and how to determine the correct spelling of others she may want to use.

These three developmental stages of a speller usually occur in the primary grades. That doesn't mean, however, a concern for spelling needs to drop from the school curriculum after the third grade. Only the *sense* of accuracy is achieved, not its actuality. Only major spelling patterns and frequently used words are part of the child's repertoire by the end of grade three. Many more words and patterns are yet to be learned. The point in describing the three stages in the early development of a speller is to draw from them an explanation of how children learn to spell.

Learning to spell is here defined in its traditional context, i.e., being able to form words by placing the letters of the alphabet in accepted (accurate) arrangements so other literate people can easily recognize those words in their printed form. In a similar sense, writing is here defined as the act of using recognizable written words to express thoughts.

These definitions do not preclude pre-spelling and pre-writing activities. Some interesting logs have been compiled on the attempts of pre-schoolers to role-play writing and spelling.

But for the purposes of this book we hesitate to give the label "writing" to drawing pictures and making scrawls even though some of that activity may be prompted by the child's desire to communicate a message. The terms *writing* and *spelling* are used here to denote alphabetic relationships to words in a written

message. Our question is, "How do people learn those alphabetic relationships?" How indeed do writers learn to spell *zeerox* so readers will recognize *xerox* or *siekologee* so they will recognize *psychology* or *kat* so they will recognize *cat*? The answer is not simple, yet probably can be gleaned from an analysis of the three stages of development already identified.

Stage 1: Alphabetic Approximation

Based on her knowledge that letters of the alphabet are used to represent words, the young writer uses visual memory and a minimal sound-symbol correspondence to write words. Thus certain visual features and the beginning consonant sound may be used to approximate the unknown spellings. Some words are known already and will be used accurately alongside these approximations. Others who try to read her message may have to ask what some approximations stand for.

Features of Stage 1

Children know that:

1. An alphabetic representation is integral to communication in writing.
2. Visual memory is a tool to be used.
3. The start of each word is a key position and probably can be recognized through a sound-symbol relationship.
4. Other people may not recognize all the words that are attempted.

Stage 2: Limited Phonics System

In this stage, the child recognizes the power of phonics and overgeneralizes the use of the limited phonics that she knows. Basic sound-symbol patterns plus increased exposure to reading and writing seem to enable the child to write about personal topics. Although still using her visual memory to write some words, she can now relate the sound of a word to some pattern of letters, and can therefore communicate with anyone who will pronounce the words as represented by the child's personal phonics system. The child has learned a powerful principle about phoneme–grapheme relationships, even though it is simplistic and overgeneralized. Age-mates or other readers may ask about certain words because their spelling is "unusual."

Features of Stage 2

1. Visual-memory experience expands the bank of words that can be spelled correctly.
2. Phonics generalizations in consonant-vowel patterns can be used to spell unknown words.
3. The writer becomes aware that some readers dispute his or her spelling of some words. Reader response raises questions about some spellings.

Stage 3: Concern For Accuracy

In the third stage, learners develop a concern for accuracy—not that they weren't concerned in the earlier stages, but other factors were of greater importance at those times. Break-

ing the print barrier was of primary importance to the learner in Stage 1, and declaring a personal message took precedence in Stage 2. In Stage 3, the child experiences a growing concern for acceptance, for the acknowledgment that the form of his presentation is okay. To achieve acceptance, he finds ways to spell most of the words accurately. Usage, grammar, and capitalization also play a role in gaining acceptance, but we'll limit the present discussion to spelling accuracy. In this stage the learner realizes that memory and sound-symbol patterns can be applied selectively. Words of similar sounds are matched to similar spelling patterns. There are other ways to achieve accuracy, of course. As a goal, accuracy now bears some significance, and other people, books, and dictionaries are now seen as resources for accurate spelling.

Features of Stage 3

1. **Visual memory expands; distinctions and similarities are noted.**
2. **Sound-symbol patterns are applied selectively.**
3. **Spelling accuracy is viewed as a means for personal satisfaction and social acceptance.**

The conditions in Stage 3 continue to operate throughout life. For example, when I write for myself, I use a variety of shorthand spellings. These notes are for me and therefore do not have to communicate to others. In writing this book, however, I take care to use conventional spelling because I don't want to insult my readers, confuse them, or have them think I am ignorant or loutish.

CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING

In truth, the three stages of developing a speller are more clearly a *set of conditions* than they are a description of how people learn to spell. We do know some facts about how the mind works to become a speller, facts we will address shortly,

but we know much more about the academic conditions that prompt accurate spelling. We are, after all, discussing spelling as it is learned in school, not as it might be learned more spontaneously with a governess or a private tutor. What are the conditions that promote accurate spelling in schools?

CONDITION: Desire to communicate in writing

Understandably, one basic condition for all learning is having a purpose. In a literate society such as ours, one might assume that everyone wants to communicate through writing. Yet the increasing availability of information via pictorial means and the fact that some families never appear to engage in formal reading and writing raise a question about how clearly children see the purpose for writing. Some teachers conduct a written conversation with children to dramatize the advantages of having writing skills. Those written conversations, often carried on over several days, place the child writer in the enviable position of being able to communicate with an adult—a real-world writing purpose for all children to ponder.

CONDITION: Student has usable words to focus on

Certain words are needed frequently in writing. A recent study showed that children in grades one through eight used only ten words to fill 28% of their compositions. One hundred words accounted for 61% of all the words used in the student papers in this study. That group of 100 words, along with similar high-frequency words, needs to form a beginning spelling list as the two groups account for such a high percentage of words used. (See Appendix B: Words for a Spelling Program)

As students advance in years, their need for new words changes. Those words should be part of every spelling curriculum to serve their immediate writing needs. Other words—let's call them desirable words—should be incorporated for long-range academic and adult writing needs, e.g., government and social-issues words.

CONDITION: Student knows that English spelling is systematic

In learning, there is nothing more frustrating than the thought that the object of study is chaotic or unmanageable. No one wants to learn (memorize) a table of random numbers. So, too, with spelling: no one wants to tackle a random array of alphabetic symbols. The child should see from the outset that English spelling is manageable. It has patterns, and as the patterns are learned, more and more words can be spelled within a system; fewer and fewer need to be memorized like a list of random numbers. Many of those patterns are based on sound-to-symbol correspondences, as in simple, short-vowel words such as *bat*, *bet,* and *bit.* Others are more easily remembered because of their visual or graphemic patterns, as in *demagogue, pedagogue,* and *synagogue*. Spelling in the school curriculum, therefore, should gradually unfold the English spelling system as a means of reinforcing the child's own intuition about sound-symbol relationships and as a means of confirming and clarifying those relationships.

CONDITION: Student develops visual memory

Some words are learned almost exclusively through visual memory. This may happen either because they are needed by the young writer before he or she knows the sound-symbol patterns that apply, or because they are among the 8% of English words that defy phonics generalizations, at least in part (the word *suave*, for example). For a beginning, *the* and *to* are words that children need to spell without attempting to associate the words with patterns. Particularly troublesome for young writers are homophones such as *their, there,* and *they're*. Students need directions or mnemonics for helping them hold the spelling in their mind's eye, and they need encouragement to develop their own memory tricks for troublesome words. "Everybody is *suave* on Su Ave., a smooth place to live."

CONDITION: Responses from real people

Children love to put things on paper. Very young children may be more interested in putting their own marks on paper than in looking at the marks in their picture books. Parents usually respond to their young children's efforts with praise and by pasting a drawing, however primitive, on the refrigerator. Responses from real people turn abstract symbols into a valuable, concrete experience. When a parent prints a title or a label on a child's picture, the child's sense of writing and spelling expands. In school, a similar condition helps children understand that their writing is for real people and that it is an act of respect, if nothing else, to help those people understand their writing. Accurate spelling is one way to accomplish that.

Real people, by the way, include a broader audience than the teacher. Of course the teacher wants to respond, but the people who strongly influence student behavior are other students and members of the wider community. When an age-mate says, "I can't read this word," or "In your paper on the bulletin board you misspelled the word *society*," the writer wants to adjust. Spelling and other writing mechanics then assume a real value, not simply an academic one.

Recognizing that other people value accurate spelling is a reward, a powerful internalized motivator, but most students need visible signs of progress as well. Some teachers add comments to the usual summary score: "Your spelling has improved over the past couple of months. Thanks for your effort." Spelling tests may serve a similar function. The child sees that her score stays high (or improves) while she tackles more difficult words with each test. "Keep it up, Marla, you're doing a good job."

CONDITION: Student allowed to make an error

In educational jargon, we often use the phrase "a developmental process."

"Writing is a developmental process," or "Spelling is a developmental process," and so on. What that means is that the

mind and the experience of a child keep changing, thus enabling him or her to continue to grow and to improve writing and spelling. What is also implied is that errors are part of academic growth. In a sense, errors are expected. They are not sins to be punished, but mistakes to be avoided in the future.

Over the years, students and teachers try to reduce early errors and try to reduce the percentage of errors as well. Children's compositions verify that the percentage of spelling errors is reduced consistently across the grades. The teacher communicates the attitude that perfection is not expected (although it is gratefully accepted, of course).

CONDITION: Targeted practice over time includes knowledge and discipline

Because writing and spelling develop gradually, students require practice over a long period of time to become proficient. But this condition is not the same as the simplistic dictum: "One becomes a writer by writing." Of course, one must write to be a writer, must play basketball to be a basketball player, must pray to be a mystic. In life, and particularly in school, a person improves by gaining knowledge and by determined practice. I can expand my vocabulary by searching for and focusing on a new word each day, and then using that word in a number of contexts. Each day I add to my word knowledge and then deliberately use my new knowledge in several practice opportunities. But I have to discipline myself to find a new word and to use it until it fits comfortably in my language repertoire.

The school curriculum and the teacher aid students by distributing types of spelling information across the grades and by providing opportunities for practice. Practice can be interesting and stimulating or it can be dull and monotonous. Just as there are no physical exercises that appeal to all people, so there are no writing exercises that will be stimulating for all. A variety of practice opportunities for spelling can be planned as one way of appealing to a variety of learners over time. Along with providing

that variety, the teacher can watch for those children who need different treatment in order to keep them participating. Since practice over time is one of the basic conditions of learning, creativity and discipline are two powerful engines which teachers must employ to keep the spelling enterprise running.

CONDITION: People and books are available to help

When the child doesn't have the answer built into his own knowledge bank, he wants to know that people and books are available to help. Parents and friends are resources for language usage and clarity. How does it sound? How does it look? Is it clear? If writing is to communicate, people need to help the writer reach that goal. Writing, even more than reading, is a community activity, not merely because a writer anticipates an audience, but more significantly because people provide the writer with ideas, skills, and response. "Hey, kids, let me know when you need help. If I can't answer your questions, someone nearby can. The dictionaries, spelling manuals, and other resource books are on the shelf or in your desks. Let's see how good we can get."

The environment is established, the conditions are operating to promote learning to spell.

Characteristics of Learning to Spell

SPELLING IN THE EARLY YEARS

Good spellers continue to rely on internalized patterns throughout grade school and into adulthood. One study took 20 good and 20 poor spellers, Grades 2 through 8, and dictated nonsense words. The good spellers used consistent, valid sound-letter rules; the poor spellers did not (Schwartz and Doehring, 1977). Thus the knowledge of sound-spelling patterns plays a continuing role in the long-term ability and accuracy of those who are good spellers.

As students learn to read, visual perception, discrimination, and memory are transferred to learning to spell; they are also key factors to accurate spelling (Marcus, 1977). The transfer of visual experience from reading to spelling has been demonstrated in a study of students having regional pronunciations. In the early grades, children wrote "pin" for *pen* and "warter" for *water,* but by the middle or upper elementary years, they had corrected these spellings, although the nonstandard pronunciation remained (Simon, 1976).

Research does not show a clear link between kinesthetic imagery such as tracing words or "writing" them in the air, except in the early grades and in remedial situations (Marcus, 1977; Fernald, 1943). However, self-correction and writing words at spaced intervals is useful; in fact, the experience of writing a word correctly after misspelling it accounts for 95 percent of spelling improvement (T. Horn, 1947).

By the time students complete grade eight, they have acquired adult spelling strategies and habits; that is, they utilize their internalized sound-letter "rules" and skills transferred from reading as they write, review their writing, and correct their spelling errors. It should be evident by now that there is no single answer to the question, "How do children learn to spell?"

We can't have children write each new word ten times and expect them all to become good spellers (although that was the only technique I can recall from my own elementary school days—that and frequent spelling bees). Nor can we say that frequent writing alone will engender a sense of spelling in all children. (That was the technique used by the teachers of my two oldest children. Both are weak spellers.) Some teaching techniques hold more promise than others, and we will examine the promising ones in the next chapter. But learning itself depends on the subject to be learned (accurately spelled English words) and certain characteristics of the person who is learning.

Let's first analyze the person who is learning.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The elementary-school student is not a learning machine. Nature and experiences have made each one unique as a person and as a learner. That basic assumption raises a caution about overgeneralizing about learning to write or to spell. Unfortunately, psychologists and educators rivet their sights on that one assumption and hastily conclude that individualized instruction is the only way to learn to spell. What they overlook is the large number of similarities among learners, usually more impressive and dominant than differences. One of these similarities is the directive power of purpose in learning, especially academic learning.

It is evident almost to the point of being a truism that seeing or having a valuable purpose gives a person energy for present activity and attention for long-term retention. For some children, a sufficient purpose may be to please their parents or teachers, but most will demand a purpose related to their own personal successes, e.g., writing an acceptable letter or producing a school paper. Related to those valuable purposes is the desire in almost all humans to communicate without committing distracting errors—spelling errors, for instance. When a person writes a letter, he or she doesn't want the recipient to say, "Look at all those ignorant mistakes." The message loses its "punch" because the errors lead the reader astray.

Another fair assumption that binds all learners together is that they have an intuitive sense that all knowledge has an order, as in the alphabetic system of English spelling. An entire field of study—Gestalt psychology—grew out of the theory that learners are searching for a sense of completeness, for a sense of order in the object of their attention. One recent educational buzz-word, "schema theory," is similar in its intent to describe the learner's continuing search for a sensible outline.

Theorists remind us that every learner needs satisfaction for her efforts. Either she personally sees that her efforts are leading to orderly knowledge, or she needs someone to tell her that she is making progress. More to the point, she needs someone to show her *how* she is making progress towards a desirable end.

These personal characteristics provide the teacher with guidelines for dealing with students, i.e., for knowing the common desires of all learners for purpose, order, and satisfaction. Most teachers adjust to the needs of learners by looking for signs that an individual is not responding positively to group-oriented activities. The teacher then adjusts the motivation, explanation, or reward to suit the needs of a particular individual.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SPELLING

Another perspective of learning to spell refers to the subject itself. Even though some students seem to acquire spelling accuracy with less effort than others, they do not learn to spell intuitively—just by reading extensively, for example. Both in composition studies and in the experience of teachers, there is considerable evidence that a person may be an efficient reader but not an accurate speller. To become a good speller requires focused learning—that is, time spent in concentrating on the words to be learned.

How to direct that concentration is a pedagogical issue. Some educators have argued for a corrected-test approach. Given a list of words to be learned, students take a test each day until all the words are spelled correctly. Presumably no

other intervention is necessary. Through inductive logic and their desire to improve their scores from day to day, students will learn the list of words. Of course, some will accomplish this more easily than others.

Another approach involves starting with phonemes and seeing what spellings stand for each phoneme: */f/= f*ought, *ph*one, enou*gh*.

The corrected-test approach reflects the visual component in learning to spell. Each learner has to find personal ways of remembering certain words. ("If I get hit in the *ear* it brings a *tear*.") The visual component cannot be overlooked and should be incorporated in a comprehensive spelling program.

The phoneme approach relies on the basic logic of alphabetic spelling and on the sound-symbol correspondences which children learn through their reading programs. It emphasizes the regularity of the language. Analysis has shown that approximately 90% of English spellings follow phoneme-grapheme patterns. Both inductive and deductive logic can be used to learn through phoneme-grapheme correspondences, thus satisfying the learner's desire for a sense of order.

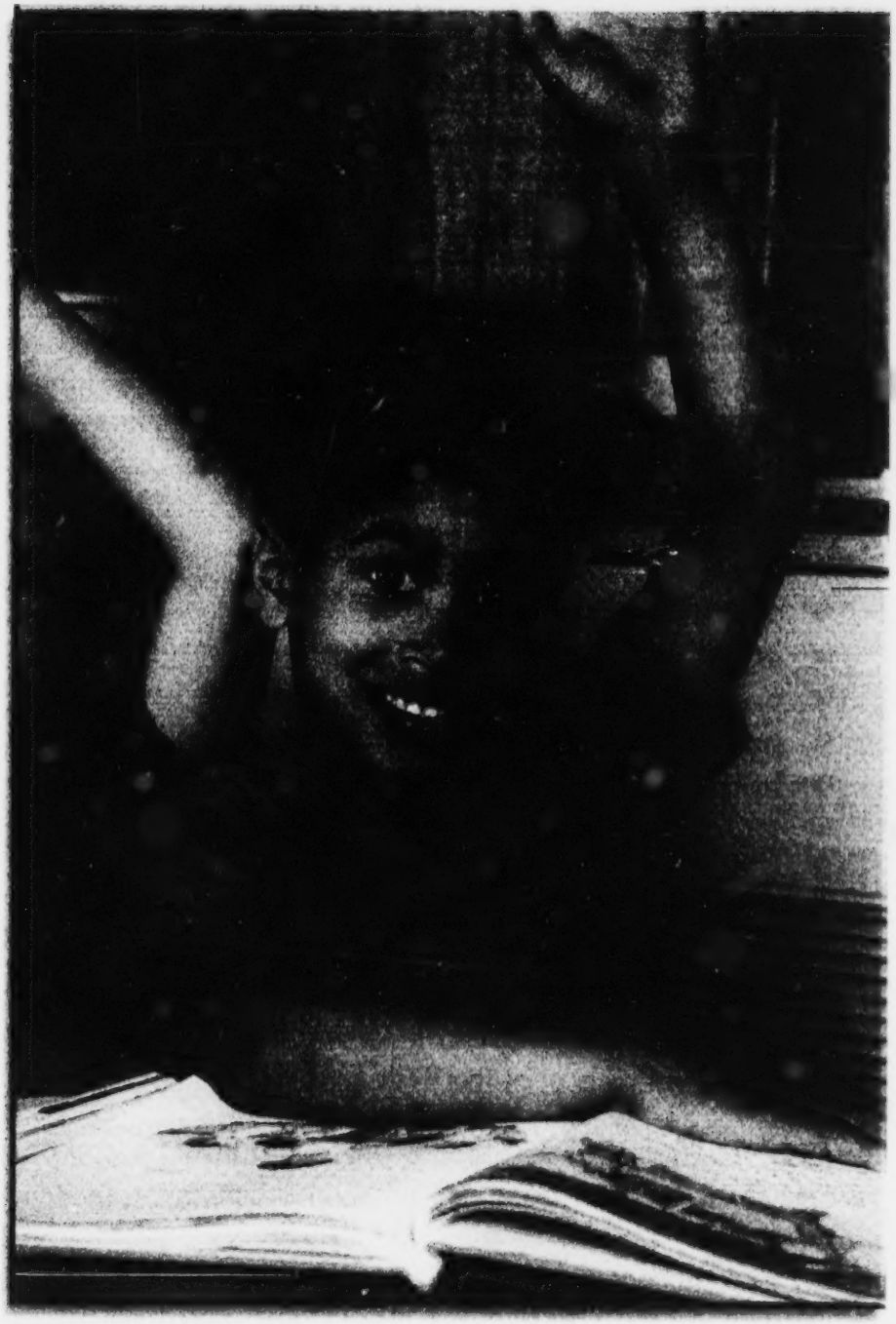
The writing-practice approach introduces the purposeful reason for spelling in the first place—to be able to communicate clearly with literate people. It also emphasizes the need for real-life practice in a spelling program. The more we write, the more responses we get from our readers. As we have mentioned earlier, regular practice spaced across the years not only meets one of the major requirements for successful learning, but also gives us a chance to expand the writing vocabulary to match the increased oral and reading vocabulary needed each new year.

SUMMARY

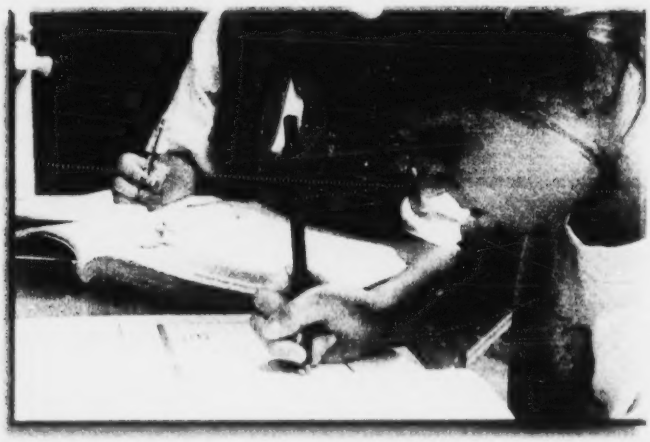
This chapter identifies the *motivations* that might prompt spelling accuracy and the *principles* which guide language learning. Visual memory, phoneme-grapheme correspondence, practice in context: therein lie the ingredients for learning how to spell in school. Attune the eye and ear, then build a spelling curriculum to keep pace with the intellectual and language development of the child. As the vocabulary grows, as the intellectual demands grow, provide the child with the tools to be successful. Three identifiable stages of development in beginning spellers are: using gross approximations, developing a personal sound-symbol system, and obtaining a consciousness of accuracy. The principles which guide language learning are:

- the need to communicate
- a bank of important words
- building visual memory techniques
- arriving at generalizations for English spelling
- getting responses from others
- having time for regular practice
- knowing resources for answering questions
- establishing a purpose
- recognizing that children have a variety of learning styles
- motivating by focusing on clear communication
- encouraging personal learning schemes
- developing a spelling consciousness.

Once the objectives for spelling are determined, once the influences on the learner are identified, once the principles for learning are established, then the arrangements of students, books, and teachers can be worked out. That is the function of an instructional plan, the function of a spelling curriculum.



CHAPTER THREE



Methods for Teaching Spelling

BECAUSE TEACHERS ARE FACED DAILY WITH 20 OR MORE CHILDREN, their concerns center on how to teach a subject in a classroom full of children. As a result, a series of questions goes through the teacher's mind:

1. What are my specific spelling objectives?
2. How do I make the content meaningful? How do I motivate the children?
3. What basic strategy should I use? Which standard techniques and activities make sense or will work?

4. **How can I organize the class effectively for spelling?**
5. **What kind of learning context will work best for spelling?**
6. **What kinds of performance do I look for?**
7. **How am I going to respond to individual differences?**

These questions can be posed about any subject, but spelling may cause special anxiety because most teachers are given little training in methods for teaching it. By speaking directly to the seven questions listed above, we may clarify many issues concerning spelling methodology.

As with other subjects, the teaching of spelling is no more complex than individual learners are. That means that spelling is both simple, because of the similarities of individual learners, and complex, because of their differences.

In its simplicity, teachers may appeal to the ear and to the eye as part of every spelling lesson. Good spellers use a combination of listening to words (and their corresponding symbols) and noting the differences in word appearances ("It doesn't look right to me"). In its simplicity, spelling lessons may identify the words most often used by student writers. Therefore, spelling methodology can focus on useful words, arranged in patterns for efficient learning, practiced for mastery, and tested for school records.

In its complexity, however, spelling methodology faces all the nuances that individual learners demand in any subject. For example, not every learner has developed a good ear for the phonemes in words, i.e., the distinguishable speech sounds in words. Adjustments need to be made accordingly. Not every learner has a strong capacity for remembering the visual distinctions among words; adjustments should be made here as well. Not every learner is content with a restricted list of frequently written words (nor should they be); provisions should thus be made for learning to spell a wide variety of words. Finally, not every

learner gains mastery over a selected body of words with the same number of practice runs; again, adjustments must be made by the teacher to deal with the situation. In its complexity, therefore, spelling requires that the teacher understand the nature of English spelling and hold a head full of techniques to use in responding to different types of learners, just as the teacher does for any subject in the curriculum.

WHAT DO I TEACH?

Research has shown that the single most important characteristic of successful teaching is cognitive clarity: the teacher's clear image of what to teach and how to teach it. Consider tennis as a highly simplified analogy. The tennis teacher wants to teach a student to hit a backhand shot over the net. He has a clear image of what that looks like; the objective is quite clear in his mind. But how does one explain to the young learner what to do with feet, hands, shoulders, head, eyes and body in order to execute a backhand shot that will hit the ball over the net consistently? A tennis teacher who has all of those answers clearly in mind has cognitive clarity. Part of the answer to those questions includes practice on the backhand and part includes playing the game of tennis often.

Teaching spelling is much more complex than teaching a tennis backhand. Just as the backhand is not the game of tennis, neither is spelling the game of writing. Without a backhand, however, a player would be woefully inept in a competitive tennis match; without adequate spelling, a writer would be woefully inept in written communication. So the teaching of spelling becomes an objective for competent writing, just as mastery of the backhand is vital for a good tennis player. To gain cognitive clarity about spelling methodology, then, is to decide what and how to teach.

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT THE SPELLING CURRICULUM

Identifying certain assumptions about teaching spelling may help to clarify spelling objectives. Consider these assumptions:

1. **At each grade, selected spelling words should correspond to those most often used by that age group.**
2. **Where feasible, words should be ordered in sound-spelling patterns as an aid to learning and to the process of generalizing.**
3. **Sound-spelling patterns for spelling should follow their introduction in the reading program.**
4. **Individual students should have the opportunity to select some personally desirable words to learn.**
5. **Spelling is performed naturally only in the context of written communication—that is, normal sentence writing.**
6. **The spelling curriculum should have a spiral development.**

A brief comment about each assumption will explain its significance.

1. **Words Needed.** Many spelling programs have been built on words taken from adult writing, using the Horn word list (1928) or the Dolch word list (1938). A more recent list taken from children's writing contains almost 2,000 words that are *different* from the 5,000 most frequently used words given in the Horn list. Most spelling textbook programs include fewer than 5,000 words across grades 1–8, showing the need for selecting words from a list with high utility. See Appendix B: Words for a Spelling Program for a discussion of word lists for a spelling program.

2. Patterns Aid Memory. Since approximately 90% of English words are covered by sound-spelling patterns, and since memory is aided by pattern presentation, children can be helped by learning about patterns that can be found in words. Some of these patterns are more appropriately identified and taught in the primary grades, such as the C-V-C pattern for *hit, mitt, bit, lit* and some more appropriate at upper levels, such as the *-igh* spelling for the sound of /ī/ in *sigh, high, fright,* and *plight.*

Providing patterns in a list containing two spellings for /ē/ spelled *ea* as in *cream, treat,* and *peace* and spelled *ee* as in *fleet, tree,* and *seem,* enables students to arrive at a generalization that will help them predict spellings for the same sound in unfamiliar words. The learning is perceived as useful; students are involved and motivated.

3. Reading Patterns. Since most reading programs spend a considerable amount of time on sound-spelling patterns as an aid to reading, those known patterns should also be used in the spelling program. In that way, the child sees a correlation between reading and writing.

4. Personal Words. Every student will want to learn certain words that are his or her own. Teachers can encourage personal words by asking students to list their own words in a notebook, keep a personal word box or spelling dictionary, or seeing how many words they can write within the pattern just studied.

Sometimes those personal words are related to a recent experience that the child wishes to record ("I saw an *alligator*"), a word that has emotional meaning (*leukemia*), or a word that she wants to memorize through a personal mnemonic ("My friend Carol's name is in *Carolina*"). Whatever the stimulus, children should be encouraged to take on a sense of ownership for words. Under these conditions, words (spellings) become interesting and memorable.

5. Communication Context. Just as practicing a backhand makes sense only in preparation for a tennis game, so learning spelling makes sense only in view of writing a message. This

doesn't mean that every spelling activity always has to involve writing a sentence or a paragraph. After all, the tennis teacher does sometimes require a student to stand in front of a mirror and practice a backhand swing—without a ball. But students won't tolerate that unconnected activity for long. They need the sense of reality in their drills. They need to hit the ball; sometimes against the wall, sometimes over the net, sometimes in a game. Practice activities for spelling may include analyzing words in a list, writing words in structured sentences, and even forcing the use of practice words in a paragraph. But the teacher will be wise to show the use of those words in actual writing that someone will read.

6. Spiral Curriculum. Time does not permit most elementary-school teachers to write their own curriculum, what with six or eight subjects to prepare each day. The published book, therefore, acts as the primary curriculum vehicle for most teachers. Part of the teacher's cognitive clarity about spelling is represented in the selection of a valuable text. Does it match the goals that have been set (as described above) and the procedures that are appropriate for the students? Are patterns reviewed and expanded year after year? Is enough practice provided for mastery?

An appropriate word list, practice in context, vocabulary development, proofreading procedures, testing, and other features can be checked off against the teacher's list of objectives. In that way, the teacher chooses the text to match her own objectives as closely as possible.

A SPIRAL PROGRAM — YEAR-BY-YEAR

Grouping words by sound-letter patterns permits sequencing across the grades, with an increasing number of patterns for each sound. With this arrangement of words, introduced in order of their frequency, students come to *think* like good spellers, considering the spelling patterns used for the sounds they hear in unfamiliar words.

Spiraling by means of the sound-spelling approach is typified by the following listings for the vowel sound in *law*.

- Grade 2: dog
- Grade 3: off, chalk, crawl
- Grade 4: loss, ball, fawn, haunt, fought, daughter
- Grade 5: cloth, waltz
- Grade 6: moss, walnut

Not all of the words in a 4,000-word list can be grouped by sound-letter patterns, of course. Those that are selected should have many applications and few exceptions, and the rule should positively affect spelling ability.

SETTING UP A WORD LIST

So how should a teacher set up a spelling word list grade by grade? Horn suggested: "The most important words should be introduced in the beginning grades, and those of lesser importance in the later grades; the simplest words should be introduced in the beginning grades; and words needed in the curriculum activities should be introduced when appropriate." (cited in Burns and Broman, 1979).

The 20 highest-frequency words that make up 25 to 28 percent of student and adult writing certainly are needed in the primary years. They must be taught separate from the sound-spelling patterns and learned visually. These words, for example, can be introduced in the primary grades: *I, the, and, to, you, we, he, for, it, that, is, are, not, in, have, my, be.* Basic sound-letter patterns, of course, should be taught in the primary grades. See Appendix B for more information on "Words for a Spelling Program."

FIRST GRADE

Suggested learning for the first grade is the discrimination of initial and final consonants and the short-vowel sound-spelling pattern, CVC *(h-o-p)* and the long-vowel pattern CVCe *(h-o-m-e)*. Students should also learn concrete words such as colors *(green)*, feelings *(happy)* and social relationships *(friend)*.

More general goals for first grade are the development of

1. an auditory sense of word parts,
2. a visual perception of similarities and differences in words,
3. an ability to arrive at generalizations on the basis of visual and auditory similarities and differences,
4. a realization that a personal vocabulary may be translated into a written message.

A formal spelling list probably should not be introduced until the second half of the first grade and should not exceed half a dozen words each week.

SECOND GRADE

Approximately half of Grade 1 words should be reviewed, including the highest-frequency words and sound-spelling patterns. Initial and final blends, such as, /fr/, /gr/, /pl/ as in *frog, grade,* and *plane* and /st/, /sk/, and /nd/ as in *best, desk,* and *sand* should be introduced.

The concept that one consonant sound may be spelled with more than one letter may be included in second-grade spelling instruction: /th/ and /ch/ as in *then* and in *chip.* An additional long-vowel spelling pattern, CVVC, should be provided: /ō/ spelled *oa* as in *boat,* for example. At this level, more than one spelling for a sound may be presented. Basic spelling rules for adding inflectional endings should be included: *work, worked, help, helping.*

A weekly list of 10 words, with additional review and advanced words, is workable at the second grade.

THIRD GRADE

Previously taught sound-spelling patterns should be reinforced and extended; for example, /ō/ spelled *o* as in *comb, o-e* as in *rose, oa* as in *throat,* and *ow* as in *low.* Several patterns for a sound may presented in one lesson. Additional spellings should be added: /n/ spelled *kn* as in *know,* /r/ spelled *wr* as in *wrong, /ū/* spelled *u-e* in *cute* and *ew* as in *chew* are examples. Spelling rules for *-ing* endings should include words ending in *e: hide, hiding.*

FOURTH THROUGH SIXTH GRADES

The word lists at these levels may expand to 15 words, with additional review and advanced words. The application of spelling principles should extend into words with two and three syllables, /ē/ spelled *ie* as in *infield* and *ea* as *meanwhile,* for example.

It is quite appropriate to introduce the schwa sound, /ə/ in words like *comedy, difficult,* and *comfortable.* Renewed attention should be given to spelling *r*-words containing /är/ as in *barge;* /ãr/ as in *staircase;* /er/ as in *stern, swirl, worse,* and *blur;* /ôr/ as in *torn, chore,* and *aboard;* /îr/ as in *gear, deer,* and *mere.* By the end of sixth grade, almost all sound-spelling patterns should have been introduced.

Homophones like *principle* and *principal* and synonyms like *advice* and *counsel* are valuable inclusions, perhaps in the context of dictionary practice. This is a good place to list content words that contain the pattern being taught: */i/* spelled *i* as in *radix* and *digit* are examples. Such words increase spelling ability, and they help students recognize that spelling applies to all areas. Vocabulary study is an ongoing part of the spelling program.

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

The basic word lists may increase to 20 words at these levels with additional review words and advanced words. All sound-letter patterns should be reviewed; the relatively rare spelling for /s/ as *ps* as in *psychology* and *psalm* should be introduced. Schwa /ə/ should receive continuing emphasis in words like *enamel, medium, oxygen,* and *ballot.* There should be continuing reinforcement of words ending in *-ant* as in *abundant, -ent* as in *independent, -able* as in *durable,* and *-ible* as in *flexible.*

Word structure should be stressed, with special attention to the meanings as well as spellings of words with prefixes and suffixes, utilizing words like *transform, superpower, circumvent, centralize, crescentlike, descendant,* and *consumerism.*

REVIEW

Some words are difficult for students at all levels. Commonly used words like *could, would, because,* and *separate* should be targeted, reintroduced on word lists, and retested at all grade levels.

HOW TO MOTIVATE STUDENTS

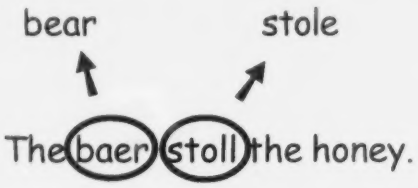
From the student's point of view, learning to spell is similar to learning any other school subject. To work on it enthusiastically, they have to see that their efforts have some valuable payoff and that the teacher cares about the results. For most children, these two ingredients produce a motivated student. In Chapter 1, *Why Learn to Spell?*, a number of factors were discussed that might help a child understand the value of spelling effectively.

The opinions of friends, parents, employers, and so on, help establish the need for spelling in daily writing. All of that can be negated, however, by a teacher who shows no interest in spelling or who openly declares that it doesn't matter. From their earliest years, children quickly learn what is important to their adult guides and use those adult attitudes to guide their own behavior. Since spelling accurately requires effort, what child will spend that energy if the teacher who gives grades does not value the work?

Teachers employ many means to encourage effective spelling without stifling the child's flow of ideas. For example, they praise a recognizable improvement without demanding perfection. By searching for selected types of errors instead of all errors, teachers can ease their own proofreading burdens and will gradually build positive attitudes for working on spelling.

Teachers can emphasize the importance of spelling by showing that children are personally responsible for their papers; it's not the teacher alone who is concerned with accuracy. Teachers can shift the responsibility for their proofreading and revision to the children by using anonymous sentences selected from the children's papers and written on the chalkboard. The class is then asked to correct any spelling errors that they see. A member from the class comes to the board to circle a word and write the correct spelling above it. After confirming that the word is now spelled correctly, the entire class spells it aloud as a student scribe places it in a display list that serves as a class spelling list.

For example,



In a variation of this self-correction technique, the teacher places an "s" in the margin of a paper where a misspelled word is found. The paper is then returned for the student to find the word, circle it, and write its correct form above the circled offender. With that approach, students begin to understand that proofreading is a regular part of their work, and the teacher is not going to accept a paper that has not been proofread—at least for selected types of words.

The teacher's attitude shows the students that she doesn't demand perfection (but of course will praise it). She does insist, however, that the student make an effort to improve his or her communication. Circled and rewritten words are evidence of the concern of teacher and student for progress.

The two elements of social pressure and teacher attention to spelling progress aren't going to eliminate all motivation problems, but experience suggests that they will eliminate most of them. Cases with more involved motivation problems must be submitted to a more intense diagnosis of the nature of the problem.

Strategies for Teaching Spelling

Motivation and provision for individual differences are crucial in a spelling program. Factors producing positive attitudes are:

1. **a sense of responsibility for and pride in accurate use of words,**
2. **recognition that the purpose of spelling is to write and communicate effectively,**
3. **a sense of ownership and mastery of words,**
4. **recognition of progress.**

Some strategies that have been found to produce these results are outlined here.

TIME ALLOTMENT

Brief daily lessons are preferable to longer once-a- week lessons. Spreading of spelling, with daily practice, across the school year not only increases learning but motivation as well.

THE TEST-STUDY-TEST METHOD

A student's own recognition of his or her progress is one of the strongest motivators in learning to spell, more important than letter grades or competition with others. Testing, adequately prepared for, provides opportunity for students to note their improved skills. Testing, immediately followed by self-correction, sets the correct spelling in a student's mind.

PRETESTS

Pretesting is seen as the single most important factor leading to student motivation and achievement (Fitzsimmons and Loomer, 1978; Petty, 1969; Hibler, 1957; Montgomery, 1957; T. Horn, 1957; Gates, 1938). The pretest enables students and teacher to

see what words need to be studied; the student then does not need to practice already mastered words, but only those that are unfamiliar or previously misspelled. It provides for both challenge and individualization.

THREE-PART WORD LISTS

The range of spelling ability in any class is large. Given a word list geared for the norm, some students are unmotivated because they already have mastered the words; others are frustrated by confronting more unknown words than they can manage.

While the average student can master the approximately 4,000 words in a spelling program, many can learn far fewer words. Thus, a list that makes room for students outside the norm will be more successful than one designed only for typical students.

A three-part word list divided into review, new, and advanced words makes it possible to divide students into at least two groups (one to work with review and new words; the other, with new and advanced words), thus accomplishing a degree of individualization.

END-OF-WEEK AND CUMULATIVE REVIEW TESTS

Most spelling programs contain end-of-week tests and periodic review tests. The review enables students and teachers to identify possible trouble spots before going ahead to more new words and concepts.

SELF-CORRECTION AND PROOFREADING

Studies have shown that corrected tests alone can contribute from 90 to 95 percent of spelling achievement (T. Horn, 1947; Christine and Hollingsworth, 1966). In some classes, self-correction achieves mastery or near-mastery of words by one-third of the class. Self-checking and correction provide "a degree of individualization, responsibility for learning, and opportunity for immediate feedback" (Marcus, 1977).

THE WEEK'S PROGRAM

The daily lessons provided for a week should enable students to master thoroughly their new words and to succeed in the evaluation at week's end.

THE WORD LIST

A list of new words seems preferable to simply showing them in context. Words are learned more quickly, remembered longer, and transferred more readily to new contexts. Lists also enable students to readily hear and see and discover sound-letter and visual patterns. The printed list is preferable; students need all possible clarity in presentation, and the printed list takes advantage of possible transfer from reading. However, research does indicate the necessity for handwriting models and practice within the lesson, and even lessons focusing on especially difficult letters and pairs of letters like *n* and *r*; *t* and *l*; and, *q* and *g*. Poor letter formation often results in apparent misspelling (Smith and Ingersoll, 1982).

FIVE STEPS TO SPELLING MASTERY

An instructional program in which list words are written daily and corrected by the student suggests five steps.

1. **WORD INTRODUCTION.** The step includes a pretest, learning the list words, and discovering the generalization they represent.

2. **PRACTICE.** Auditory, visual, and kinesthetic perceptions should be utilized. Practice activities should be varied, because students learn in different ways. Any given activity will "work" better with some students than others. Above all, activities should be enjoyable, enhancing students' awareness of and sensitivity to words and their meanings as well as their spellings.

In the primary grades, practice activities may consist of crossword puzzles, writing the list word *cat* to match the vowel sound in the picture of a hat, completing sentences with list words: "It is a rainy (*day*) ."

The same types of activities continue into the middle elementary grades at a more sophisticated level. Word-search puzzles ask students to find and circle list words, thus getting them to pay attention to the spelling of the words.

Students may also use list words to complete analogies: "*Rough* is to *smooth* as *poor* is to (*rich*)." Clues may be used to elicit list words: "used to clean: (*washcloth*) ." Word groups may be completed: "*stream, river,* (*brook*) " Rhyming words may be matched: "*planner* (*banner*) ."

Exercises for the upper grades provide increased emphasis on the meanings of words: "The foods you eat have *important* effects on your health. (*significant*) ." "Aspirin may relieve a (*headache*) ."

List words may be used to complete sentences in paragraphs rather than in single sentences.

3. **WRITING.** Using words correctly in writing is the end goal of a spelling program. Students perceive spelling as meaningful and important when they use the words in messages of their own. They recognize that correct spelling is useful when they relate it to all areas of the curriculum—language arts, science, social studies, and even math. Actually, accurate spelling affects achievement and success in all curriculum areas.

Students need to perceive spelling as a tool for expressing themselves and to understand that correct spelling not only ensures their being understood, but also how they will be perceived by others. One sixth-grade composition contained numerous misspellings such as "dauter" for *daughter,* "ded" for

dead, and "munny" for *money,* but the narrative was an interesting account of a man's journey from rags to riches and rags again. The composition, typed with misspellings, was submitted to a group of students. Eighty percent did not even attempt to read it. The 20 percent who did estimated that it was the work of a poorly performing first- or second-grade student. Implications for the writer are clear.

Writing assignments in a spelling program should include real-life tasks such as letters, news stories, narratives, conversations, and reports, as well as structured sentence writing that develops spelling skills directly. To help make students aware of the need for self-editing and revision, student writing should be reviewed by the teacher or by a peer. Weekly proofreading exercises develop the habit of correcting and editing, a habit that transfers to writing in all areas. Actual compositions indicate the need for review and self-correction for grammar and

sentence structure as well as spelling (Smith and Ingersoll, 1982). Here are typical examples:

I am riting to ask you a questin why dont you ever trust me it seems that you do not trust me at all so you make me feel bad and you hurt my feelings to.

I wood like to be a teacher because you get good money, and I now I would enjoy the job. Helping kids just like my teacher does.

They pressed the button and BANG the whole thing blew up and pointed to elmers garden and elmer yelled it exploded we didn't get one carrot out of the carrot machine.

Here, by way of contrast, is an excerpt from a carefully written and reviewed composition.

The Green Giant started to throw corn niblets and carrots at the enemy, but that didn't hurt them. It was those new good-tasting frozen vegetables that hurt them and forced their retreat. The Green Giant was awarded a medal made of corn niblets and carrots, but it was the frozen vegetables that had done the trick.

4. **REVIEW AND EXTENSION OF WORDS.** This step should provide the review necessary to enable students to succeed in the end-of-week test. It may also be used to extend and enrich student vocabulary, pique interest in the language, provide motivation to spell, and build competence in using resources like the dictionary and tables of English spellings.

Review activities may include finding synonyms for words like *furnish (equip, supply, provide)* and various meanings for words like *run,* learning the histories of words like *salary* and groups of related content words like *monarchy, sovereign,* and *knighthood.* Mnemonic devices help with difficult words: "Do camel's teeth have *enamel?*"

5. **END-OF-WEEK EVALUATION.** Most students who have performed the preceding steps will succeed in the weekly test, which, like daily activities, should be self-corrected. Keeping a record of troublesome words and of their test scores helps children keep track of their progress and the words they need to work on.

SUMMARY

A concept—a spelling generalization, for example—needs to be applied to chance encounters and needs to be used to invent words, i.e., to project the spelling of words that have been heard but are not visible at the moment. When the child uses a spelling generalization to "invent" unseen words, that generalization has in fact become a part of the child's knowledge structure about spelling.

Children gain spelling generalizations through discovery (inductive learning) and through invention (projected applications).

"To search for and to apply generalizations" is one basic strategy for teaching spelling. Another is the "test-teach-test" routine. A number of studies verify the power of first testing spelling words, then teaching the unknown words, and testing again.

Intuitively, many teachers have used that routine in the past. The initial test alerts the children to their own strengths and weaknesses. They can concentrate on overcoming the weaknesses in order to score better on the final test. For that reason, a time-honored tradition in teaching spelling has been a pre-test on Monday; word study on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday; post-test on Friday.

Although research indicates the effectiveness of a test-teach-test method, starting off with a test for first-grade children who have very little experience with words is not as valuable as it is for more experienced learners. It makes more sense to set the stage before the young child has to take a test.

An alternative to the test-teach-test approach is to introduce the words, check over the list of words, learn the generalizations or other features of the words, and finally take a test or write a story that indicates progress.

How do you lead a child inductively through a spelling list? These are the kinds of questions a child ought to be asking himself:

1. What do I hear?
2. What do I see?
3. How would I expect this word to be spelled?
4. Where does this word fit in my life?
5. Can I give a sample of how I would use this word?

CHAPTER FOUR

Additional Teaching Strategies

STUDENTS NEED TO KNOW THAT THEIR SPELLING IS IMPORTANT to adults and that spelling matters to those who evaluate their work. They need encouragement and recognition of progress from their teacher, both as individuals and as a group. They need to know that they have mastered and now "own" the words they want to use. They need to keep track of their progress.

PERSONAL DICTIONARIES

Having students keep their own personal dictionaries or files of words they misspell or are especially interested in has proved to be successful; the words may come from a student's experi-

ence, such as a trip to the zoo (*alligator*) or a special concern *(appendicitis).* Such "personal" words can become the basis for individualized tests or for class learning through displays and charts. Encourage students to keep a personal spelling dictionary either through a notebook, through cards in a box, or through a computer data file.

MNEMONIC DEVICES

Visual-memory aids, such as, "A *fowl* has wings but a baseball goes *foul,*" and "Use *stationery* for writing letters but make sure a post stands *stationary,*" help students remember how to spell tricky words. Encourage students to develop their own personal devices for remembering words that are hard for them.

ATTENTION TO PRONUNCIATION

Mispronunciation of words often leads to misspellings. If students pronounce "probly" and "probally" for *probably, "liberry"* for library, and "*Febuary*" for February, the chances are they will spell those words the way that they pronounce them. Careful pronunciation by teachers will help these students, especially if the students are asked to pronounce the word as the teacher does.

GAMES AND DISPLAYS

Word games increase alertness and sensitivity to words and their spellings. They provide enjoyment as well. They promote inquiry and experimentation by offering opportunities to practice word formation in challenging and non-rigid circumstances. Many word games can be used as substitutes for practice activities in textbooks. The games may be oral, can be used informally in groups, and can be played by students independently.

Activities include rhyming words: "I am thinking of a word that rhymes with *tub;* it is something you do with a cloth when you wash your face." *(rub, scrub)* Letter substitution may be utilized to make new words: *pen, pet; men, ten; hot, hit, hat* are

examples. Students may develop word chains by changing letters: *walk* to *wall* to *tall* to *tale to tile* to *tide* to *ride.*

Words from discussions may be displayed on charts and bulletin boards to serve as reminders and personal spelling words. Edited sentences may be displayed to serve as guides for students in their writing. Asking students to improve a sentence creates a challenging activity and builds the sense of group participation.

EVALUATION

Tests and reviews of students' papers enable the teacher to track performance. In general, an 80 percent score on weekly and cumulative evaluations indicates satisfactory performance. Many students will have 100 percent performance after daily use and personal correction of words.

Additional evaluation of progress may be determined by asking these questions:

Does the student

- pronounce words carefully and correctly and associate sounds with spelling patterns?
- use sound-letter patterns in unfamiliar words?
- check a dictionary when everyone seems to be stumped?

Is the student

- aware of parts of words?
- aware of word meanings when encountering frequently confused homophones?
- gaining in visual memory and the ability to determine whether a word "looks right" when proofreading?

TEACHER ATTITUDE

In spelling, the textbook may play a larger role than it does in other content areas. Class time is brief, and teacher preparation for classes is minimal. Spelling will be mastered if teachers and students believe that spelling is important and a source for self-pride, that spelling is interesting, that resources for spelling correctly are available, and that spelling can be mastered.

Evaluating a Spelling Program

Teachers often have the responsibility for choosing a school's spelling program and look for guidance in their choice. There has long been research on the subject to provide for the development of effective programs.

Research provides both do's and don'ts about teaching spelling. These strategies do *not* motivate students or improve spelling.

- The study-test method, in which students study a list of words on which they are then tested.
- Presentation and study of words syllable by syllable, with concentration on the hard parts of words.
- Copying spelling words many times.
- Flexible time allotments in which poor spellers are encouraged to spend large amounts of time on lessons.
- Introduction of words in the context of sentences or paragraphs.
- Development of individual methods of learning words.

Here are strategies and characteristics of programs that *do* work, as shown by research mentioned earlier. They provide for student motivation, allow for individual differences, and produce a sense of responsibility for and pride in spelling words.

- A current research-based vocabulary.
- Grouping by: (1) common sound-spelling patterns, arranged in a spiral curriculum; (2) common word-structure patterns (prefixes, roots, and suffixes); (3) words that are often confused; and, (4) spelling rules.
- Statement of the spelling concept or generalization.
- Separate teaching of irregular words while encouraging students to develop visual mnemonic devices.
- Distribution of words according to students' needs in writing, with the simplest and highest-frequency words introduced first, gradually extending to words needed in all curriculum areas.
- Spelling rules and word lists related to the decoding patterns and other common aspects of word knowledge, often presented in reading instruction.
- A pretest that determines which list words each student needs to study.
- A word list that provides reviews, new words, and extension (challenge) words and thus allows for individual differences in spelling ability.
- A systematic approach to learning words that utilizes auditory, visual, and kinesthetic perceptions.

- Daily practice and self-correction of list words in a weekly program that: (1) develops a generalization; (2) practices words; (3) uses words in writing; (4) reviews and extends meanings; and, (5) evaluates progress.
- Use of words in both structured and free-writing assignments, followed by guided editing and revision.
- Concepts that encourage students to use resources for new vocabulary and encourage independence in checking their speiling.
- Systematic, spaced reinforcement, especially of difficult words, and provision for students to keep track of their own progress.

For more information on evaluating a spelling program, see Appendix A.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The Need for Organization

In one sense, all learning ought to be individualized, because there is such a tremendous variation in individual learning abilities. But in another sense, language and communication grow only within a group and not in an individual setting.

HOW TO ORGANIZE THE CLASS

We organize to accomplish certain goals. A teacher usually wants to accomplish these general objectives in regards to spelling:

- **Respond to differences in ability and performance.**
- **Manage the class efficiently during short (fifteen-minute) exercises.**
- **Promote interest in accurate spelling.**

Because spelling occupies a relatively minor portion of time in most schools, we will assume that teachers will aim for a minimum of organizational fuss when it comes to conducting spelling lessons. (We are not preordaining that spelling must be set aside in some isolated form; rather, we strongly encourage a transfer of spelling knowledge to the proofreading exercises in all writing assignments.) We further assume that teachers want to respond to the differences in ability in the class and that they accept the validity of the spaced-practice learning principle: that is, that brief periods of practice recurring at regular intervals provide the most powerful and effective means for learning language behavior. Those assumptions provide guidelines for organizing the spelling class:

1. **Brief, spaced practice in spelling.**
2. **Identify a minimum of two groups of students: those who need most of their time spent on basic words, and those who can quickly tackle challenge words.**
3. **Choose a well-organized text, given that teachers have a minimum of organizational time.**

THE TWO-GROUP PLAN

Identifying the students who belong to the challenge group and those who belong to the basic group can be accomplished in several ways. One reliable method is through teacher observation of previous lessons and student writing. Another way is to give a test. By using a placement test from the textbooks, the teacher will be able to separate the more competent spellers from the less competent ones. Still another way is to ask the students to self-select. Despite the apparent ego problems involved, most students will respond honestly to their own needs. If they find that they have performed poorly on a lesson pre-test, they usually will follow the extra-practice route. They know that some evidence of what they have been doing will show up on a test at the end of the week. Whether self-selected, selected by test, or by the teacher, the organizational plan in this approach begins to look like the outline given here.

TWO-GROUP SPELLING PLAN

	Mon. 15 min	**Tue.** 15 min	**Wed.** 15 min	**Thu.** 15 min	**Fri.** 15 min
Basic Group	Test & Develop	Teach & Practice	Apply	Extend & Share	Test Basic & Review words
Challenge Group	Develop Generalizations	Teach & Practice	Apply	Extend & Share	Test Basic & Challenge words

To call this the "Two-Group Plan" may be inaccurate: the students may or may not meet in two groups. Those labels merely suggest a way for the teacher to track particular students on different sets of words. The basic-words group and the challenge-words group should be able to work within the confines of the same textbook. Some spelling series actually provide simple branching into basic words or challenge words based on the student's performance on the pre-test at the beginning of the week. If they score *below* 60%, for example, the students work with the basic words. If they score *above* 60%, they work with both the basic words and the words on the challenge list. At the end of the week, then, the teacher gives everyone a test over the basic words, and splits the class for a few additional words—review words for the low scorers, challenge words for the high scorers.

The Two-Group Spelling Plan could also operate with two separate groups, the teacher working with each group in turn and asking members of one group to work with one another while the teacher works with the other group. They would function in a manner similar to reading groups, only for shorter periods of time.

MIXED TEAMS

Some teachers prefer a second plan that organizes students into small teams, each team composed of both high and low performers. The mixed composition of the teams is designed to promote social responsibility and interaction. Mixed teams encourage team members to help the less competent by describing how they remember words, use words, and go through a paper to proofread. Each team member shares his or her personal mnemonic schemes. The week's schedule is similar to the one described above. It is the social interaction that changes. The test at the end of the week can still differentiate between the more and less competent spellers by branching into review words and into challenge words, perhaps by asking each group to decide who will spell the review words and who will spell the challenge words. Modifications of that procedure depend on the circumstances of the class and the personality of the teacher. The following outline for a week's activity uses several small groups, each composed of high and low performers–that is, basic-word spellers (B) and challenge-word spellers (C) working together.

MIXED-TEAM SPELLING PLAN

	Mon.	Tue.	Wed.	Thu.	Fri.
B-C 1	pre-test				
B-C 2	develop				
B-C 3		practice			test
B-C 4			apply		
B-C n				extend	

The teacher could select one group to work with, trying to meet with each group at least once a week.

In the two organizational plans presented in this chapter, it is assumed that the children are using a textbook that provides various short exercises for each week's word list. We encourage teachers to use other opportunities to teach spelling; compositions written for other subjects can be used for this purpose. It is also helpful to lift sentences from children's papers as a means of transferring learning about spelling to their daily lives. Those opportunities hold significant potential for motivation and for showing the integration of spelling in communication.

It is axiomatic that organization flows from the instructional purpose. It is equally important to remind ourselves that teachers will make a plan successful if they believe in it, and if they are comfortable with it.

CHAPTER FIVE

Self-Correction and Personal Responsibility

ALL LEARNING TAKES PLACE WITHIN SOME CONTEXT. FOR spelling, we want children to see that spelling is part of their writing, that it makes use of patterns, and that certain things make it easier (using the dictionary, for example). Writing and proofreading of course provide opportunities in which spelling can be taught. A setting also includes attitudes, those of the teacher as well as the student.

For instance, each student should be responsible for his or her own errors. The teacher's attitude should reflect a concern that writing, revision, and use of the dictionary match the vocabulary and skills of the child. It may seem impressive to have a child spell the word *adamant*, but it is a meaningless gesture if that child doesn't know the meaning of the word and therefore has no further use for it.

Revising Writing and Spelling

ANALYSIS OF SPELLING ERRORS

The Smith-Ingersoll study reported almost 10,500 spelling errors. An analysis of these errors provides guidance for both grouping and distribution of words. Errors reported were of five general types: 1) incorrect use of sound-letter spellings; (2) unawareness of word families; (3) misuse, or confusion, of homophones; (4) errors in compounding words; and, (5) unawareness of word structure or non-application of spelling rules. This excerpt from a 226-word, seventh-grade fantasy provides examples of several types of spelling errors; the underlined words were the only errors in this narrative:

> "I hope you're not going to eat me," said a little worm. Willamena (a bird) was so <u>supprised</u> she jumped. Then the little worm said, "Hey, watch where <u>your</u> going." Willamena <u>stoped</u> and said, "I'm sorry, but you <u>supprised</u> me." "Well, <u>supprising</u> is <u>alot</u> better than getting eaten," said the little worm. "My name is Willfred, but call me Willy for short."

Another composition contains a variety of error types.

> "I don't want to be a nurse becaus you have to give shots. I don't want to be a vetenarian because it's hard to be a vet. I don't want to be a fotografer becaus you have to work to late. And I don't want to be a police woman because I'm afraid of guns."

Editing exercises in a spelling program should include more than simple checking for misspelled words. Developing a *spelling eye* and a *spelling ear* is a primary concern, but teachers should emphasize that the clarity and effectiveness of the message is as important as the correction of spelling errors—actually more. Closely related to spelling, for example, is handwriting, and other typical areas that the critical eye looks for as it searches for errors and incongruities. The rule should be: "If it doesn't sound right or doesn't look right, check it out."

Across the grades, revising and proofreading assume different degrees of importance. At each grade, however, both teachers and students should remind themselves they are striving to develop a sense of communication which involves spelling, handwriting, capitalization, and punctuation. In the beginning, proofreading and revising exercises focus on those simple things that are very concrete and easy to have the child look for—things such as capitalization at the beginning of a sentence, correct punctuation at the end, and the high-frequency spelling words the child needs.

At each grade level, more sophisticated aspects of the mechanics of communication and of the development of ideas should be included. This is not to say that a spelling program replaces an English program in an editing and revision plan, but the only way to get children to develop an eye for spelling and other aspects of writing is to make it a regular feature of revis-

ing compositions. However, there is a corresponding need for the teacher and the spelling text to teach the proofreading and editing guidelines children are expected to carry out on their papers. It is not fair, after all, to hold the children responsible for something they have not been taught.

GROUPING BY SOUND-LETTER SPELLINGS

Research has found that students rely on sound-letter strategies 95 percent of the time when spelling unfamiliar words (Read, 1971; Hammond, 1971). The Indiana study reinforces these findings: "ether" and "eather" for *either,* "hert" for *hurt,* "techer" for *teacher,* and "sience" for *science* were examples. A first-grade example, corrected for punctuation only, shows a young child's reliance on auditory perception and the names of letters of the alphabet for spelling words of which the writer was not sure.

> The cookies floow out of the uvin and then tha floow in the Bras. Then tha gut up. Then tha went into another howse. Then a girl cam to the dor. Then se sed "Hlow, cookies. Cum in, cookies."

The regularity and predictability of English spellings was demonstrated by the Stanford study of sound-letter patterns (Hanna, Hodges, Hanna, and Rudorf, 1966). Grouping by patterns has important implications for spelling programs.

Responsibility for Children's Writing

One of the most effective ways of showing children their responsibilities for proofreading and revising is to use their own work for teaching and for focusing on specific spelling or other revision matters. In other words, by having children write exercises on the board, or by making overhead transparencies from their own papers, a group or a class can examine sentences and paragraphs that children have written. The reviewers are asked to improve them. Here are some procedures:

1. **Select specific targets for examination; for example, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, or the development of more specific words or more interesting words than have been written.**
2. **When a member of the class identifies an error or a word or phrase needing improvement, the individual making the recommendation should circle it and write the change or correction above the circled item.**
3. **The teacher turns to the rest of the class for verification of the change. That verification can take the form of asking if the error has in fact been corrected or if the change in words or phrases has improved the original.**

This procedure shows children that they must be actively engaged in examining their work. They also see that the examples are taken from their own work, not from textbook writing. Once a personal sense of proofreading and editing has been established, the teacher can ask students to work on published practice exercises. But now, the attitude of inquiry and personal responsibility, linked with a notion of proofreading and revising, has been placed in the hands of the students.

The procedure briefly outlined above does not preclude the use of list words from a spelling textbook. In a textbook, children will have spelling words presented to them in context. They may be asked to write their own sentences containing the spelling words, or they may be given a sentence which needs to be completed with a word from the spelling list. In these instances, their first target is to look at the list to see if the word they have spelled matches the spelling in the word list.

GUIDELINES FOR PROOFREADING SPELLING

Children need to understand how to proofread. Through teacher repetition or through a printed card on their desks, children need to become familiar with a pattern similar to the following:

1. **If your eye or your eye-ear combination suggests a word is misspelled, try writing the word again to see if it looks better the second time.**
2. **Use the generalizations about words with similar sounds or with similar beginnings and endings to see if the word you have written looks right. Does it, in fact, match the generalizations you have reviewed?**
3. **If you are still in doubt, check the word against a word list, look it up in a dictionary, or ask someone else.**
4. **Are there handwriting (letter) confusions in the way you have written certain words? For example, have you written the letter *d* so that it looks like *cl*?**
5. **When in doubt, check it out. Use a handbook to help you decide what needs revising.**

As part of proofreading and editing, teachers can demonstrate the nagging language problems that exist in writing. These problems involve sentence fragments, double negatives, run-together sentences, and nonstandard usage. They also include precise vocabulary and clear writing, for example, by replacing vague or general words with more exact ones.

Along with proofreading, the teacher can help students learn to use a dictionary effectively in looking up spelling problems. Once again, the teacher can refer to the generalizations that the child already knows about sound-spelling patterns, acknowledging that for many sounds there are several common spellings, and thus the child may have to look in several places in a dictionary before finding the word that is needed.

Some achievement tests ask children to identify errors in sentences or in words. It would be helpful to prepare for those tests by giving children sample standardized test items to alert them to the kinds of things they will face when taking an achievement test involving proofreading, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and so on.

PROOFREADING ACTIVITIES

There are a number of activities that help students learn to proofread. Some samples are listed below.

- Present students with scrambled sentences and have them reconstruct the sentences. This gives them an opportunity to get a sense of sentence structure. Some of the words may be misspelled. A variation on this is to make sentences into questions. Turning sentences into questions also gives children a chance in the early grades to become aware of the different intonation patterns that exist when a statement is turned into a question, and vice versa.

- Asking children to develop more specific or appropriate adjectives, adverbs, or verbs to replace existing words. This can be done orally or in writing. For example, ask children to replace certain common words they all use, such as the word *say*, with more explicit and colorful words that carry the same meaning.

- Work on homonyms should occur at all grade levels. A typical exercise involving homonym proofreading can be seen in the sentence, "Their were three people present." Students should find the incorrect homonym and replace it with the correct one.
- Sentence dictation and follow-up proofreading are easy and natural exercises for practicing revision at any grade level. Those dictation sentences may include the spelling words from a list or difficult words from any subject area.
- Limericks and jingles provide a number of opportunities for proofreading experience and vocabulary development. Children love to read jingles and to create their own. It offers an opportunity to work on homonyms and just to have fun with words, and to think about possible alternatives of words that rhyme.

A bare bear is a funny sight,
No one would deny.
But a hare without hair is a sorry plight
for the hare and the human eye.

In all of these activities, we need to remind ourselves that children should be asked to proofread only those things that have been introduced, explained, or demonstrated.

TEACHING THE CONCEPT

The teacher gave Clair a sample envelope and she learned to address an envelope this way:

Clair Brown
5460 S. Victor Pike
Bloomington, Indiana, 47401

Lisa A. Mattei
21 Cross Street
Northfield, Vermont 05663

PRACTICE

Proofread this envelope that Clair actually addressed. Find one spelling, one capitalization, and one punctuation error. Write the address and return address correctly.

Clair Brown
5460 s. Victor Pike
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Jody A. Vaught
2065 W. Fullerton Pik
Bloomington Indiana 47401

To give focus to proofreading activities, select a limited set and review the categories that you suggest to children. Use this list as a guide to selecting your categories.

SAMPLE PROOFREADING SKILLS

Analysis of spelling errors

Word order in sentences

Errors in use of homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms

CAPITALIZATION

First word in sentence and all proper nouns

Abbreviations (capitals, period)

Book or story titles (capitals, underline)

First word of direct quotation

Poems (first word in line of most poems)

PUNCTUATION

End punctuation, period

End punctuation, question mark

End punctuation, exclamation point

End punctuation, with direct quotation

Comma to separate city and state, day and year

Comma after introductory "Yes" and "No" and to separate interrupters ("On the other hand, ...")

Comma used to separate words in a series

Comma used with direct quotation

Comma in direct address

Quotation marks

Apostrophe with contractions

Apostrophe with possessive case

Colon in list

Colon in time

USAGE AND GRAMMAR

Sentence fragments

Double negatives

Run-together sentences

Pronoun forms (subject-object forms)

Subject-verb agreement (regular verbs)

Irregular verb forms

INFLECTIONAL ENDINGS

Adding *-s* or *-es* to nouns

Adding *-ing* to verbs

Adding *-s* to verbs

Adding *-ed* to verbs

Comparative form of regular adjectives (*faster*)

Comparative form of irregular adjectives (*bad, good*)

Distinctions in usage, such as *well* and *good*

MANUSCRIPT FORM

Friendly letter—capitalization, punctuation, and indentation in heading, greeting, closing

Business letter—capitalization, punctuation, and indentation in principal parts

Envelope—capitalization, punctuation, zip code

Simple bibliography—author, title, publisher, date

Which Competencies?

Some children breeze through spelling with nary a flutter; others stumble all across the page. As teachers try to make decisions about how to help individual students, they first have to determine what is important. What are the competencies that help children improve their spelling? Several can be identified for the adequate speller:

1. **The ability to spell a list of frequently used words.**
2. **The skill to use a variety of spelling patterns as an aid to spelling less frequently used words.**
3. **The reasonable use of hunches about the accuracy of words they have used.**
4. **The use of a systematic proofreading routine for reviewing their writing.**

The word lists, the patterns, the hunches, and the proofreading skills change, of course, as the children move through the curriculum. Nonetheless, they are categories of performance that teachers can examine to find ways of helping their students.

TESTING FOR SPECIFICS

By using review lists or review tests, teachers can evaluate a child's knowledge of high-frequency words. Usually an 80% score or better will satisfy a teacher that the child knows enough words. Even then, a trained glance at the child's misspellings may reveal confusion in certain patterns—targets for reteaching.

Memory experts remind us that children recall words better if they are able to fit them into previously learned patterns. Some teachers test for patterns by scattering pattern words in the midst of a test on high-frequency words, requiring a child to demonstrate pattern knowledge as well. The following spelling-quiz list was put together to diagnose three different patterns.

butter	mail	locate	other
flight	dead	sight	aid
trail	party	paid	every
heavy	right	instead	read
grade	bread	kiss	might

The patterns are *-ight*, *ea*/e/, and *ai*/ā/. This twenty-word review test deliberately includes four samples of each of these three patterns. The teacher can often tell at a glance if any one of the patterns is not being used correctly. Reteaching and additional practice can be given where needed. The other words in the review test are taken from the balance of available words over the word lists being reviewed.

There are several ways to find out how a child learns to spell an unknown word. One way is to ask a student what he does, a kind of introspection. Depending on the age of the child, he may be able to describe an approach, if he has one. That's the issue, of course: Does the student have some reasonable strategy? For example, does he try to pronounce it carefully and associate known patterns with the word or its syllables? Where there are peculiarities or special difficulties such as double letters, does he try to create his own mnemonic? Is the dictionary one of his resources and does he know how to test for alternative spellings within a dictionary?

on

ation

Besides asking the student to look inside his own head, the teacher may observe the child as he or she tackles a difficult word. Does the student approach these words in some systematic way? By dictating a sentence or two containing unfamiliar words, the teacher can simply watch the action, perhaps asking questions to prompt introspection. Does the child merely give up when the word is not immediately remembered? Suppose the child finally asks for the spelling or locates it in a dictionary.

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Does he or she then know how to fix it in memory for future use? Here is one memory technique:

1. **Say the word slowly.**
2. **Write the word while saying it.**
3. **Look at its special characteristics and then close your eyes, trying to see the image of the word.**
4. **Write the word in a sentence, spelling it aloud while writing it.**

That procedure may seem cumbersome to an experienced adult writer who needs fewer memory aids, but it does give a student a procedure for dealing with words to be memorized.

In a similar vein, students need to learn to create their own associations. Everyone uses them for certain groups of words or for very unusual words ("*i* before *e* except after *c*," etc.). Does the child have a sense that he or she ought to take an active role in creating those memory aids, those mnemonics? They don't have to be clever, but they do need to provide the child with a personal association for future use. ("My friend *Carol* can be seen in the first part of *Carolina*.")

CONCLUSION

Attention to accurate spelling has reemerged as a desirable skill in the information age. As our society communicates more often in writing, we all become attuned to the need for clarity and accuracy. Correct spelling in our messages gives us one way of creating a positive impression. All of us want to write without being embarrassed by errors.

Children who receive spelling instruction move through the stages of using gross approximations of the letters of the alphabet, then personal sound-spelling patterns, and finally a persistent concern for spelling words accurately. By knowing these stages, teacher can point children towards the next stage of continuing improvement.

Though word lists can be used effectively in a school curriculum, teachers and parents must keep in mind the basic purpose of learning to spell, i.e., to write clearly so others can understand the written message. Spelling words chosen for study should serve the dual purpose of showing valuable spelling patterns and of being used frequently in children's writing. This book has identified a grade-by-grade sequence of objectives for a spelling program.

As is true of all learning, there are many successful strategies that teachers use to teach spelling. For example, the test-study-test method, a direct instruction approach, has considerable research evidence to show its efficacy. Another highly successful technique is summed up in this book's description of the self-correction strategy, which involves students in public exercises of identifying spelling errors in their papers and correcting them as a class.

All in all, successful spellers are those who concentrate on spelling accuracy and are given time in class to study and practice in short, daily exercises.

APPENDIX A

Criteria for Evaluating a Spelling Program

Research on spelling instruction shows us that a test-teach-test approach and a strategy that places responsibility for proofreading on the children lead to long-term effective spelling. A test-teach-test procedure gives the students and teacher target words to concentrate on. Student-written products show students how to use spelling in real-life activities, and they are then more likely to transfer their learning of spelling to their writing. Therefore, these spelling program evaluation criteria follow:

CRITERIA BASED ON RESEARCH AND ACCEPTED PRACTICE

1. Does the program provide a pre-test and follow-up teaching procedure?
2. Are students directed to practice words and rules in real-life writing tasks?
3. Does the program use a sensible, current word list that will aid the learner in writing tasks appropriate to his stage of development?

4. Is systematic, spaced practice provided through brief daily lessons?
5. Does the book provide an orderly approach to learning spelling rules and encoding logic?
6. Are spelling rules and word lists related to the decoding patterns and other word knowledge that the student has learned, including the basal reader?
7. Are the words examined in context as well as in isolation?
8. Are self-help (self-analysis) directions provided throughout the program?
9. Is there a quick-reference spelling handbook or set of rules included to aid student self-correction?
10. Are there self-correcting features available—answers in the teacher's guide or answer sections in student books, for example?
11. Are special words and challenge lists interspersed to create interest?
12. Are students invited to include their own special words through activities such as developing a personal dictionary or designing spelling games with a group of special words?
13. Does the book provide evident ways for the student to check off progress?
14. Are the directions clear and simple enough for the student to do exercises on his own?

APPENDIX B

Words for a Spelling Program

Which words should a teacher use for spelling instruction? Common sense provides one answer: **students should learn to spell the words they will use in writing**. The other answer is that **they should learn words that show them valuable sound-spelling patterns.**

VOCABULARY STUDIES

By the early 1900s, the size of the basic vocabulary for a spelling program was established at approximately 4,000 words. The *content,* or composition, of this list of words to be taught had not been established. Of the twenty then-current programs, each program claimed to teach the 4,000 "commonest" words, the words that students and adults were most likely to write. But publishers disagreed on which 4,000 were most likely to be used. The combined list from twenty programs contained not 4,000 but 13,000 different words (Wise, 1934).

Since that time, dozens of frequency lists have been developed, based primarily on material written for and by adults and on reading material for students. Researchers have studied

spelling errors, words and the grade levels at which they are understood, and sound-letter correspondences. The studies that have had most influence on shaping spelling lists across the decades are listed here.

***A Basic Writing Vocabulary**: The 10,000 Most Frequently Used Words (1926)* by Edward Horn, based on adult correspondence.

***Basic Spelling**: The 2,000 Commonest Words for Spelling (1942)* by Edward Dolch, based on an earlier list of children's words in correspondence (Fitzgerald, *1931*) and spellers.

***The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words** (1944)* by Edward Thorndike and Irving Lorge, based on adult texts, manuals, newspapers, magazines, and previous studies. The list was first published in 1921 with 10,000 words and extended to 20,000 in 1931.

***A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children** (1945)* by Henry Rinsland, based on over 100,000 samples (6 million words) of students' themes, examinations, and correspondence. The list contains 17,000 words in order of frequency.

***Phoneme-Grapheme Correspondences As Cues to Spelling Improvement** (1966)* by Paul Hanna, Jean Hanna, Richard Hodges, and E. H. Rudorf, contains over 17,000 words listed by sound-letter spellings.

***The American Heritage Word Frequency Book** (1971)* by John Carroll, Peter Davies, and Barry Richman, based on 1,000 curricular books, Grades 3–8, containing over 87,000 words.

***The Living Word Vocabulary** (1976)* by Edgar Dale and Joseph O'Rourke, based on student comprehension of *43,000* words at given grade levels.

***Basic Reading Vocabularies** (1982)* by Albert Harris and Milton Jacobson, based on reading programs, containing almost 10,000 words listed by grade level and frequency.

Written Vocabulary of Children, Grades 1–8 (1982) by Carl B. Smith and Gary Ingersoll, based on 16,000 compositions written in free- writing exercises, containing 10,000 words by grade and frequency.

THE FREQUENCY APPROACH

High-frequency use lists became the guides for spelling vocabularies. Horn's analysis (1926) of 5 million words revealed that a very small number of words make up a very large percentage of writing. The following 20 words were the most frequently used, and the first 10 of them made up 25 percent of all adult writing.

1.	***I***	6.	***you***	11.	***it***	16.	***will***
2.	***the***	7.	***of***	12.	***that***	17.	***be***
3.	***and***	8.	***in***	13.	***is***	18.	***are***
4.	***to***	9.	***we***	14.	***your***	19.	***not***
5.	***a***	10.	***for***	15.	***have***	20.	***as***

His analysis also indicated that the first 1,000 words on his frequency list of 10,000 accounted for 90 percent of words written; the first 3,000, for 95 percent; and the first 4,000 for 97.8 percent. The conclusion: a satisfactory spelling program should contain 2,800 to 3,000 well-selected words (E. Horn, 1926; Fitzgerald, 1951; T. Horn and Otto, 1954).

Although many students can and do learn more than 3,000 words during their elementary years, most spelling programs today provide 3,000 to 4,000 words, thus including approximately 98 percent of all of the words students and adults ever write.

It is no wonder, then, that word frequency became the basis for teaching spelling words from the Thirties through the Fifties. (Words were taught visually. Learning to spell each word was a separate act.) There was stress on letter-by-letter spelling, syllabication, and rote memory. Frequently, the hard parts of words were emphasized in an effort to correct anticipated misspellings in a word such as *separate*, for example.

Many lists across those three decades appeared to be random. Dolch provides a typical set of weekly lists from a series of the late Thirties, for example:

Third Grade	Fifth Grade	Seventh Grade
fix	hose	comment
met	soul	catalog
both	hire	jealous
says	lawn	dignity
only	niece	science
also	lying	allowing
need	whose	familiar

Dolch pointed out that the first list includes only words everyone is certain to write; the fifth grade, words somewhat less likely to be written; the seventh grade, words that will be used occasionally.

THE SOUND-LETTER APPROACH

In the Sixties, some researchers felt that spelling might be greatly facilitated if sounds and their spellings grouped words. The Stanford University study (Hanna, Hanna, Hodges, and Rudorf, *1966)* grouped words by sound-spelling patterns, using both consonant and vowel spellings. Their list, for example, shows these spellings for /o͞o/:

flute, rule, blue, true, chew, jewel

proof, school, goose, soothe, coupon, routine

route, troupe, movie, whom, approve, lose

The study concluded that vowel and consonant sounds have regular, consistent spellings about 80 percent of the time. The study said it was possible to predict complete spellings for almost half of the 17,000 words studied, and that an additional 37 percent could be predicted with only one-error accuracy.

Consonant sounds are the most regularly spelled, vowels less so. For example, /b/ is spelled *b* or *bb* in 99 percent of words with that sound; /f/ is less regular—*f* as in *fan*, *f* as in *stiff*, *ph* as in *photo*, and *gh* as in *enough*.

Short vowel sounds are almost always spelled with the matching alphabetic letter.

/a/ as in *pat*: 96%

/e/ as in *pet*: 90%

/i/ as in *pit* or *gym*: 91%

/o/ as in *pot*: 93%

/u/ as in *but*: 86%

Long vowel sounds are less regular, but are usually spelled with the matching alphabetic letter and a marker indicating the long vowel sound, for instance, the matching alphabetic letter plus a final *e*.

/ā/ as in *lake*: 79%

/ē/ as in *me*, *scene*: 72%

/ī/ as in *ice*: 74%

/ō/ as in *hose*: 86%

/ū/ as in *dune*: 89%

The Stanford study had a great effect on spelling programs, as two third-grade word lists from the Seventies show. Three spellings for a single sound were included in the list below. High-frequency words that did not fit the pattern taught at the grade level were then listed separately.

Spelling /ī/				Memory Words
cry	tie	slide	strike	mother
fry	pie	kite	wide	brother
sky	lie	bike	beside	her
spy	die	bite	quite	
hide	hike			

Another third-grade list provided words with the vowel sounds in *book* and *room*, and one memory word. The columns are not arranged by sound. Again, a common word that did not fit the pattern was listed separately.

Cool Wool Words				
boot	cook	noon	stood	shook
brook	pool	wool	roof	cool
tooth	crook	broom	hook	truth

A Recent Vocabulary Study

Until 1982, the Rinsland study, published in 1945, was the only major national study that was based on students' compositions and resulted in a frequency list. The frequently used Dolch list was based on words listed from textbooks, not children's writing. Other studies providing vocabulary for spelling programs were based on material written for and by adults, on reading material written for students, or on vocabulary tests taken by students.

The 1982 Indiana University study of children's writing was designed to find the words that modern students wanted to write. It also examined their spelling errors (Smith and Ingersoll, 1982).

Participating students (Grades 1–8) represented all types of populations—rural, urban, and suburban. They wrote compositions on subjects of their choice or in response to teacher suggestions without consulting dictionaries. Approximately 15,500 compositions, 2,000 per grade, were received. They produced 484,487 running words, 10,262 different words, and more than 10,000 spelling errors.

The study revealed a changing vocabulary. Among the first 5,000 words in the study, 1,758 were different from the Rinsland list of 1945, and 1,915 were different from the 1926 Horn list.

HIGH-FREQUENCY WORDS

Analysis indicated that there had been almost no change in the highest-frequency words. The 10 most frequently used words accounted for 28 percent of all the words written. (Horn's first 10 made up 25 percent.) An asterisk (*) follows words identified by Smith and Ingersoll that appeared in the first 10 words in the Horn list.

1. ***a****	6. ***was***
2. ***the****	7. ***my***
3. ***and****	8. ***of***
4. ***I****	9. ***we****
5. ***to***	10. ***he***

The 100 most frequently used words accounted for approximately 60 percent of all words used. They are substantially the same as the first 100 words found in earlier frequency lists.

100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED WORDS IN CHILDREN'S WRITING, GRADES 1–8

1. ***a***	26. ***like***	51. ***day***	76. ***friends***
2. ***the***	27. ***then***	52. ***out***	77. ***too***
3. ***and***	28. ***were***	53. ***him***	78. ***other***
4 . ***I***	29. ***all***	54. ***will***	79. ***after***
5. ***to***	30. ***go***	55. ***not***	80. ***don't***
6 . ***was***	31. ***get***	56. ***people***	81. ***our***
7 . ***my***	32. ***there***	57. ***make***	82. ***no***
8 . ***of***	33. ***with***	58. ***could***	83. ***just***
9. ***we***	34. ***had***	59. ***or***	84. ***has***
10. ***he***	35. ***are***	60. ***can***	85. ***lot***
11. ***it***	36. ***so***	61. ***very***	86. ***fun***
12. ***they***	37. ***went***	62. ***play***	87. ***things***
13. ***would***	38. ***up***	63. ***some***	88. ***by***
14. ***is***	39. ***at***	64. ***what***	89. ***little***
15. ***in***	40. ***said***	65. ***this***	90. ***know***
16. ***have***	41. ***them***	66. ***time***	91. ***want***
17. ***that***	42. ***if***	67. ***home***	92. ***saw***
18. ***for***	43. ***her***	68. ***good***	93. ***did***
19. ***you***	44. ***one***	69. ***as***	94. ***more***
20. ***she***	45. ***because***	70. ***down***	95. ***see***
21. ***be***	46. ***do***	71. ***their***	96. ***big***
22. ***on***	47. ***school***	72. ***house***	97. ***us***
23. ***but***	48. ***got***	73. ***back***	98. ***your***
24. ***when***	49. ***his***	74. ***came***	99. ***every***
25. ***me***	50. ***about***	75. ***from***	100. ***didn't***

VOCABULARY TRENDS

Comparison of vocabulary (the 1982 Smith-Ingersoll study and earlier lists) indicated some significant trends: shortening of some words, replacements for others, and some altogether new words. *Advertisement* is now *ad*, for example, and *examination* is *exam*. *Crude* has been replaced by *gross* in common student usage and *trousers* by *jeans*. Some altogether new words have appeared, for example:

all-star	four-seater	rerun
blast-off	minibike	ten-speed
cookout	nuclear	
disco	pollution	

Unexpectedly difficult and sophisticated words were used (often misspelled) by students in the early grades.

Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4
helicopter	evaporate	miniature	maneuvered
hospital	elephants	dinosaur	disintegrate
rescue	festival	government	instructor
ruin	medicine	gymnast	laser
surprised	pirate	lizard	nonprofit
survive	president	thermostat	orphanage
tyrannosaurus	trampoline	environment	overpopulating

Some of these words do not appear at all in current reading-vocabulary lists; some appear, but at later grade levels than those of the student writers. Not listed at all for Grades 1–8 in the Harris-Jacobson list of words found in children's readers are *overpopulating, nonprofit,* and *disintegrate. Helicopter,* used by a first-grader, is a Grade 3 word. *Evaporate, miniature,* and *maneuver* are all Grade 6 words. Thus, the study of children's writing indicates that students want to use and spell words they have not yet encountered in reading schoolbooks. It would seem, then, that special attention should be given to helping them predict spellings of words that are in their speaking but not their reading or writing vocabularies.

GROUPING OF SPELLING WORDS

Most spelling vocabularies consist of the 4,000 most frequently used words. The first 1,000 of these words have remained stable over the decades. We now see, however, that new words are entering students' written vocabularies, and students need to be provided guidelines and patterns that will help them spell the words they want to use.

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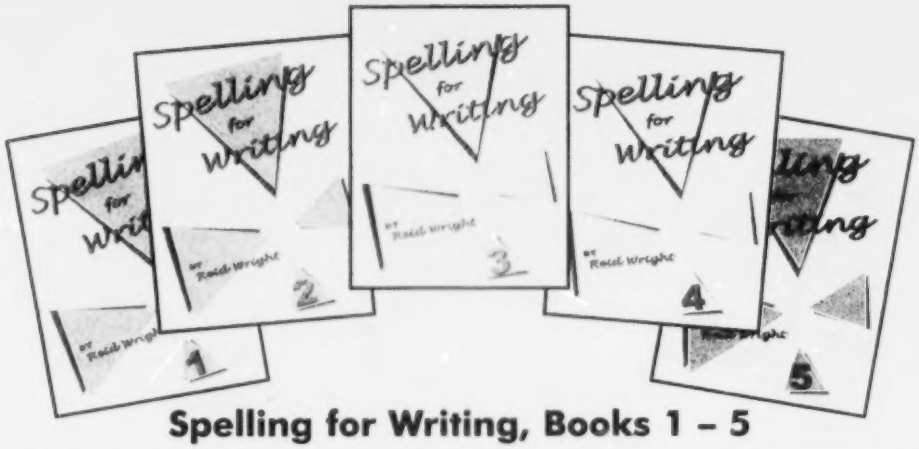

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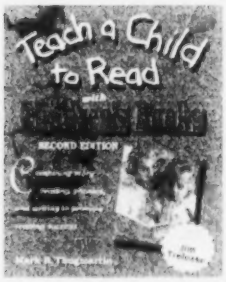

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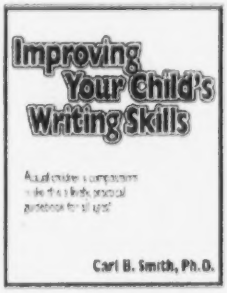

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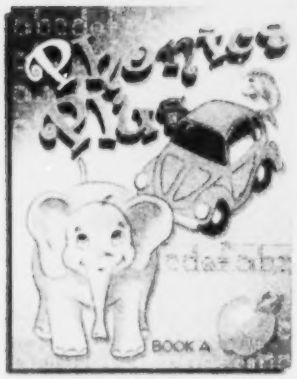

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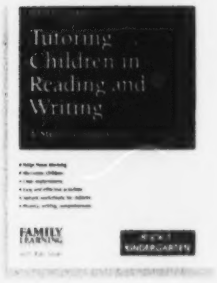

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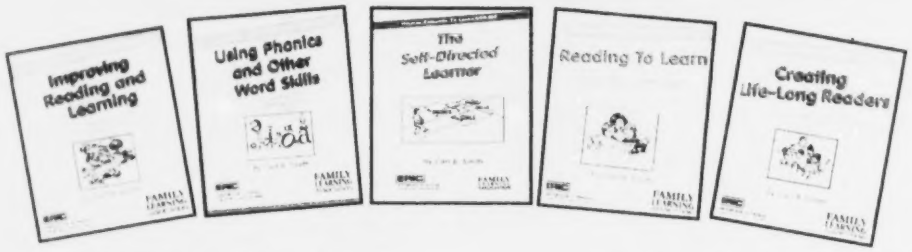

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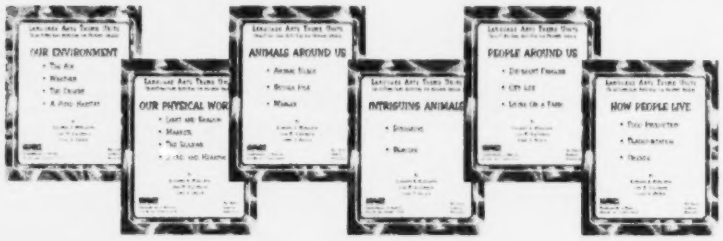

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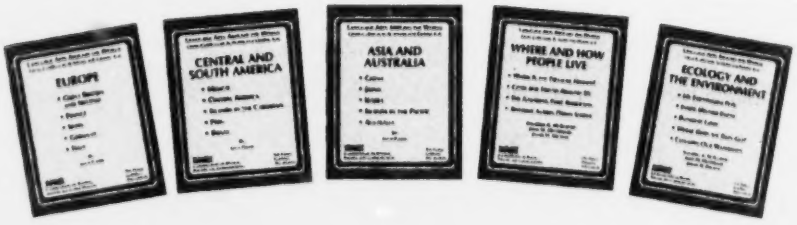

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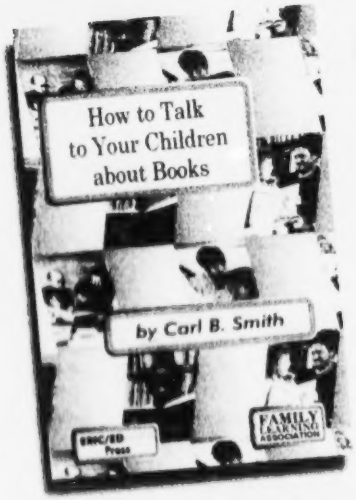

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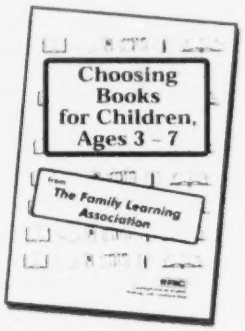

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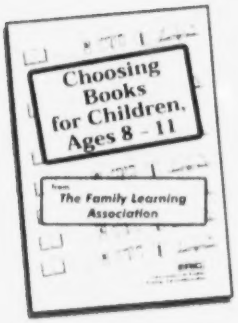

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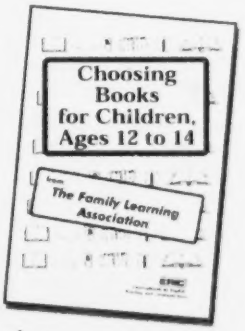

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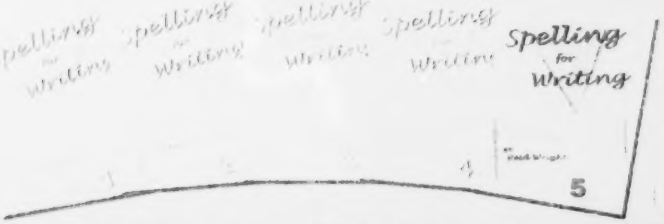

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